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## The Week

President Taft's speech in New York before the editors and publishers had a great success with his immediate audience and will, of course, carry nation wide and across the sea. In his appeal for Canadian reciprocity, he addressed himself mainly to the situation in the Senate. While he traversed familiar ground, he re-stated the arguments with both force and feeling. One point which he made has been too much overlooked. It is that the proposed agreement with Canada is not a policy which, once adopted, cannot be reversed if we see fit. The case is not of a treaty running for a fixed term and requiring due notice before denunciation. It is simply a legislative act which is contemplated and which can be repealed if it does not work well.

As it is a foregone conclusion that the Senate will accept the reapportionment bill passed by the House, it is desirable that the necessary action be taken promptly, so that those State Legislatures which are still in session may avail themselves of the opportunity to make whatever arrangements are called for in the way of redistricting. As for the basis itself, it was adopted for reasons that cannot be admitted to be sound, but which are always potent with Congress—the desire to have no State lose in number of representatives. As the rate of growth of population is different in different States, the adoption of this as a principle would, of course, have the effect of making the House larger and larger every decade; and the present would have been as good a time as any for calling a halt upon that process. However, there is good reason to hope that the disadvantage of the increase of numbers now about to take place will be far more than counteracted by the benefits that will flow from the change in the size and arrangements of the hall of the House. With the area greatly reduced, with desks removed and members no longer busy dispatching their correspondence and other business while Congressional

eloquence is wasted upon them, we may hope for more reality about the House debates. If the *Congressional Record* were at the same time to be radically reformed—some tentative moves in that direction are put forward—the two changes together would make a vast difference for the better.

The unanimous decision of the Supreme Court sustaining the most ample rights of the United States Government in the control of the public lands of the nation furnishes ground for solid satisfaction. In one of the cases decided on Monday, the Attorney-General of Colorado appeared, on behalf of the State, on the side of the private litigant opposing the claims of the United States. He argued that no provision of the Constitution empowered the Federal Government to "conserve the national resources" by providing for a continuing timber supply, regulating the flow of streams, and preserving power sites from being monopolized. The Supreme Court admitted no such limitation of the discretion permitted to the nation in dealing with its possessions; in the Constitutional declaration that "Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or property belonging to the United States" it found authority broad enough for all purposes which Congress, whether wisely or not, may deem desirable in the public interest. Thus one, at least, of the difficulties that might stand in the way of an effective national policy of conservation is forever disposed of.

Without pinning faith to all the details of the evidence that has come out about the men who financed Senator Lorimer's election, one thing must be considered as thoroughly established: the tariff was at the bottom of the corrupt use of money at Springfield. Again and again in the testimony does this fact crop out. When the representative of the Harvester Company was asked for \$10,000 to help reimburse Hines, who said that the election of Lorimer had cost \$100,000, the significant statement was made: "You are as much interested in having the right kind of man as we are." Of course, the "right"

kind was the kind that would see that none of the tariff plunder was taken away. The same idea appears in what the chief witness before the investigating committee said the other day. He may not have been accurate or truthful in what he alleged about Hines's activities and admissions, but there is no mistaking Hines's motive. No Senator who would dare vote for free lumber could be thought of; the beneficiaries of the duty were bound to see that enough money was put up to prevent such a horrible result. It was simply the old clear case over again of making a large investment in politics in order to get a much larger amount back in the shape of protection. The tariff is a prolific mother—no race suicide there—and not content with being the mother of Trusts, is also the mother of corruption.

The latest legislative graft scandal comes from Ohio and bids fair to be of service to Gov. Harmon, who, it will be remembered, has encountered much mysterious opposition in his desire to obtain certain reform legislation. Three detectives of the Burns agency, arrested for offering a bribe to a legislator, announce that they have proof to lay before the grand jury that fourteen legislators have taken money from them for the passage of legislation. Their attempt to incriminate another Representative, Dr. George B. Nye, was what led to their arrest. Columbus has been as full of lobbyists and of rumors of undue influence this winter as Albany was last year. At the hearings on the liquor bill the city was crowded with representatives of the brewers, and when the local option bill was defeated by one or two votes, outsiders interested fairly forced their way on to the floor.

The conclusions embodied in Superintendent Hotchkiss's report, regarding the selling by life insurance companies of the stocks of other corporations still held by them, cannot easily be disputed. Mr. Hotchkiss flatly declares that, in his opinion, "there is not sufficient justification and no present need for the repeal of the mandatory sale provision, found in Section 100 of the insurance law"—the provision in the Act of 1908, requiring companies to dis-

pose of such investments. The reason for that requirement was perfectly understood when the law was passed; it was set forth in the report of the Armstrong Committee to the New York State Legislature in 1906. The practice of buying control of subsidiary corporations with charter powers denied to life insurance companies, the report explained, had "brought insurance companies into close relations with railroads, banks, trust companies, banking houses, and the flotation of new enterprises; thus involving them in the manifold transactions of the financial world, not in their normal relation as creditors through suitable investments, but as co-owners of the corporations and promoters of the undertakings to which they thus became allied."

Now, precisely this connection with other institutions was shown by the insurance inquiry to have been used as a subterfuge to evade the legal restrictions on investment of life insurance funds. To this practice the president of a great life company referred when he declared in a private letter, in 1903, that his policyholders' funds could not be placed in the attractive investment bargains of the day, although \$36,000,000 of the company funds were then on deposit with institutions controlled through stock ownership. As a matter of fact this huge sum was already tied up in other engagements, such as trust companies might engage in, but life companies as such might not. This was the machinery through which most of the insurance scandals disclosed in 1905 were made possible. To have left that machinery in operation, after what had been discovered, might easily have rendered the whole programme of legislative reform a fruitless undertaking. That the three-year time limit placed by the law on the process of selling these stocks of other companies may have been too short, in the sense that the unfavorable markets of the period gave no fair chance to liquidate save at financial loss, is a more reasonable argument. It is so recognized by Superintendent Hotchkiss in his further conclusion that the real remedy for such embarrassments as confront the companies is "a substitute bill, providing for an extension of time within which the sale of existing holdings may be accomplished."

The scant space given in the daily press of this city to the death of Dr. Herman Knapp is but another proof that we have not come to place that value upon great scientists which is characteristic of older countries. Had he lived in Berlin or Paris the passing of Dr. Knapp would have been one of the great topics of the day, for his was a life of singular usefulness to the community, as well as to the science of ophthalmology, and there were few American medical men who rejoiced in wider renown on the other side of the water than did he. He studied at no less than seven European universities. He established a dispensary and hospital for eye diseases which is now a part of the University of Heidelberg, at which he taught for four years. Settling in New York in 1868, he became at once the foremost practitioner in ophthalmic and aural diseases and the founder of the Ophthalmic and Aural Institute, besides being a professor in the College of Physicians and Surgeons. More than that, the whole science of medicine is in his debt for the *Archives of Ophthalmology and Otology* which he founded, as well as for numerous treatises and text-books of permanent value and for his lasting contributions to the treatment of eye-diseases. But this is the briefest outline of an enormously busy and useful life. Never was there a doctor in New York who gave more generously of his services to the poor and the needy; to them he would go even late at night after an exhausting day's labor, if no other time was available.

If the negro wants to discover the regard in which he is really held by the Government, let him emigrate to Canada, where the arrival of two hundred colored persons has brought to the surface all the subtleties of the race problem. On the one hand, according to a dispatch from Ottawa, it is freely argued that the experience of the Southern States shows such immigration to be undesirable, and that it should, therefore, be prohibited by the Dominion. On the other, it is pointed out that the negroes are American citizens, and that the imposition of a head-tax on them, as on the Chinese, might arouse feeling at Washington. The difficulty with the two hundred was that, rigorous as the immigration officers tried to be, none could be re-

fused admission. "All had money, all were in good health, and apparently of good moral standing." A similar party went from Oklahoma a year ago, and, displaying the same refractory disposition, have prospered and proved adaptable to the country. The matter is further complicated by the fact that Canadians pride themselves on their country's having been a haven for negro fugitives before the emancipation of the slaves. "It is seldom that negroes are excluded from hotels or subject to any other specific social or public indignity in the Dominion." But, of course, if any considerable number of them are going to invade the free lands of Western Canada, all this must be changed. Nevertheless, we venture to hope that the correspondent we cite is mistaken in his uncharitable suggestion that Canada's boasted toleration for negroes is explained by their scarcity.

Mr. Charles O. Ricker, who for three years fought in the battles of the civil war as a private in the One Hundred and Fifty-seventh Regiment of New York Volunteers, died yesterday at his home in Oneida Castle, N. Y. Mr. Ricker, never a man of independent means, distinguished himself subsequent to the war by refusing to accept for his services the pension which the government tried to thrust upon him. His creed was that no man able to work should accept a pension.—[Press dispatch.]

Surely if ever a man deserved a medal of honor it was Mr. Ricker. If Oneida Castle knows true greatness when it sees it, there will soon be a conspicuous monument on its village green to its most distinguished citizen. The firemen and the nearest militia company will parade, the Congressman will deliver the oration, and the village dominie will not only read from the Scriptures, but will, we trust, point out that, whereas many a man has won the iron cross for facing bullets, there is scarcely an American soldier who has looked a pension full in the face and refused to surrender.

After a recent study of the depreciation of motor-cars, the London *Times* comes to the conclusion that between 15 and 20 per cent. of the value of a new automobile ought to be written off as lost after the first day's run. Intrinsically, it finds, the car may be none the worse off and even better for a good "shaking-down" of the machinery; but it is second-hand from that hour, which

the *Times* feels makes newness a very expensive item in buying a car. This depreciation remains, however, about the same for the whole of the first year; in the second, 15 per cent. more should, it thinks, be written off from a \$5,000 car—slightly less than is allowed by dealers on this side of the water, who take off about \$1,000 a year on cars of the best American makes. The cheaper English cars ought to be regarded as deteriorating at about the same rate, it appears; so that at the end of two and one-half years half the value of a \$2,500 car should have disappeared. The *Times* even works this depreciation out per mile per passenger, which it gives at from 3 to 5 cents a mile, according to the original cost, and this it thinks "a cost which cannot be considered excessive, considering the capabilities, comfort, convenience, and rapidity of the modern motor-car." Few automobile owners keep, we fancy, a careful account of the cost per mile of their cars. The *Times* thinks that for a first-class car it ought to be about 12 cents a mile; in this country, 17 cents or 18 cents would probably be nearer the mark.

At the Guildhall meeting last Friday, one London citizen named Herbert Asquith brought forward a motion in favor of the proposed arbitration treaty with the United States, and another London citizen named Arthur Balfour seconded the motion. There is a certain significance about the ceremonial that even the formal endorsement of arbitration by the leaders in Parliament lacks. The House of Commons represents the English nation, but the Guildhall is more apt to mirror the opinion of the man in the street. This meeting, therefore, showed that the peace idea has not only seized upon statesmen and high theorists, but has impressed itself upon such matter-of-fact people as London aldermen and lord mayors. If the sturdy British merchant can still be taken as the brawn and sinew of the land, here is that important class squarely aligning itself in behalf of peace. The British merchant is not given to soft dalliance in the lap of ideals. At present he is voting not for universal peace, but for a definite treaty of arbitration between two definite Powers.

Cabled accounts of the new bill intro-

duced in the Commons for the prevention of crime by aliens, hardly did the measure justice. It does not at all propose to restrict the right of refuge on British soil from oppression and tyranny which foreigners have so long enjoyed. Nor does it aim to disturb in the least the great bulk of the alien population in England. As it was explained to the House, the chief object is to stiffen up the provisions of the existing law relating to the punishment of aliens convicted of crime. Since 1905, the English courts have had the power to add expulsion from the country to the sentence of any such convicted alien. But in practice it has been little availed of; and the proposal is that whenever a judge does not put that part of the law into force, he must state the reasons why he does not. The bill also makes more severe the penalty for aliens who return after being expelled for crime. A further provision is that if a complaint is laid before a court that a given alien is consorting with criminals or suspected persons, he may be ordered to give sureties. This could not operate against well-conducted political refugees, for, as Mr. Churchill said, "there has never been a time in this country when *bona-fide* refugees were not able to get two citizens to vouch for their good behavior." The enlarged act also proposes to forbid aliens to own or carry firearms without a license. There can be little doubt that the recent murders in Houndsditch and elsewhere by foreigners led to the proposal of this Government bill, yet there is no sign of panic about the measure, and its provisions seem to be moderate and not out of keeping with the traditional British policy.

University life in Russia during the last half-dozen years has functioned very imperfectly. In September, 1905, on the eve of the dawn of the constitutional era, the universities received large powers of self-government, the principal concession being the election of the rectors and deans by the university councils and the faculties. Oddly enough, these rights were left uncurtailed during the ensuing years of reaction and the nullifying of the constitutional régime throughout the country. The universities remained, therefore, virtually the only forum where the aspirations of the Russian people could

find something like free expression. This state of things continued until last January, when the autonomy of the universities was, substantially, suppressed by decree. The rector and pro-rectors of the University of Moscow resigned in protest and were punished by being deprived of their professional status. Up to the present time nearly a hundred members of the faculty have resigned or been dismissed, and the oldest of Russian universities has virtually ceased to exist. Within student ranks there has been a division between radicals and moderates, the latter insisting on the exclusion of politics. But the motto, "Universities are for learning," which outside of Russia would be received as an utter commonplace, is opposed to the entire tradition of life in the Czar's Empire. Russia, in the mass, cannot conceive learning that is separated from the actualities of the day, just as it will hardly tolerate a literature or art without contemporary meaning or purpose.

The prospect of a tremendous change in the economic life of India, thinks the *Calcutta Englishman*, must now engage the chief attention of her publicists, especially her Viceroy. Great schemes for the compulsory education of the masses, and for the draining of every swamp, are all very well in their way, remarks this observer, but the important fact is that India is turning from an agricultural into an industrial country. In proof of this it points to the growing employment of gold, the release of hoarded rupees, the joint-stock banking, and the co-operative credit societies. Lord Hardinge has been sparing of his words in reference to conditions in his new field, and in closing the debate on the financial statement, he said merely: "If our Indian finance is to come through in safety, our watchwords must be caution and economy." This is enough, however, to satisfy those who feared the possibility of his countenancing some of "the wild-cat schemes which have been placed before the Council as the result of the fact that the credit of the Government is good and the treasuries overflowing." There may be a tendency among Englishmen resident in India to undervalue the "uplifting efforts," which they term "the unrest," but there can hardly be two opinions as to the wisdom, there as elsewhere, of Lord Hardinge's watchwords.

## THE REPUBLICAN SPLIT.

Whereas, There is a division among the Republicans of the Senate, a minority of whom are known as progressive Republicans, to wit: Senators Clapp, La Follette, Bourne, Borah, Brown, Dixon, Cummins, Bristow, Crawford, Gronna, Poindexter, and Works; such division being well recognized in the Senate and throughout the country as based upon clearly defined differences on important legislative measures on questions of great public interest. . . .

This is the language, not of Democrats or Mugwumps, but of Republicans. An enemy hath not done this; rather, a familiar friend of the Republican party has lifted up his heel against it. For the words cited above are from the formal resolutions which Senator La Follette laid before the Senate Committee on Committees, demanding chairmanships and appointments on the ground of being virtually a separate party. There could not well be a franker or more public recognition of the wedge driven into the Republican party. It is not surprising that the majority, while refusing to comply with the request of the minority, viewed it with great concern as portending party disruption; and expressed the fear that "similar demands will have to be dealt with later in party conventions." Indeed, Mr. Ray Stannard Baker, writing in the May *American Magazine* on the insurgent Republican movement, declares that "It requires no very vivid imagination to see the progressives in that convention [the National Republican Convention of 1912], balked in their efforts to control the party, marching out of the hall to form a convention of their own."

For our part, we confess that it takes rather more than our portion of imagination to see such a coming event. Its shadow is too dimly cast before. We are aware of the fact that La Follette is a Presidential candidate, and that his friends are saying that he would bolt, or at least not support, the renomination of President Taft. It is added that he would not support, either, a Democratic nominee, such as Gov. Harmon. All this looks like a determination to flock by himself, which he may do; but that is a very different thing from predicting that any organized body of Republicans, much less the solid phalanx of twelve Republican Senators, would follow him out of the convention. The analogy tacitly in the minds of those who think this possible is the action of the Silver Republicans in 1896. They, it

is true, under the lead of Senator Teller, "marched out" of the convention, but they were driven by an issue which was clear-cut and which they and their constituents believed to be absolutely vital. Can any man trace an equally sharp and deep-cutting line between the regular Republicans and the progressives? We think not.

Consider the insurgent Republican programme. From the beginning, the first item in it has been, as Mr. Baker puts it, "a much lower tariff." On this they made their great play in 1909 and all last year. But what has happened to them since? A practical step toward lowering the tariff has been proposed in the shape of the Canadian reciprocity agreement, and, lo! these progressive Republicans have been against it almost to a man. If one may judge by the proceedings in the House, they will almost as strongly oppose the bill for the farmer's free list. Most of them would assuredly be against the removal of the duty on wool. But this goes beyond mere inconsistency; beyond the appearance of settled hostility to whatever President Taft urges, whether it be the tariff up or the tariff down. It points to the fact that the insurgent Republicans would be wholly unable to formulate their tariff doctrines in a way either to solidify their own ranks or to make precise their dissidence from the tariff plank which the regular Republicans are likely to adopt in 1912. To break on principle, you must have a principle on which to break; and the most friendly but candid observer of the vacillations of the insurgent Republicans on tariff proposals would have great difficulty in pointing to any definite principle on that subject, unless it be that protection should be removed from articles which their States do not produce, but that any duty in which any constituent of theirs is interested can be touched only at peril of a political cataclysm.

The rest of their programme is also wanting in necessary divisive matter. They "believe in conservation," but what villain does not—in some kind? They are for postal savings banks, but they already have the beginnings of the system, thanks to President Taft. They believe in an income tax (which Taft and the regular Republicans are helping them to get), in a reform of the currency (ditto), in laws regarding pure food and public health (the same), and

in "strictly regulating public utility corporations" (amen from the regular Republicans). Some of them also contend for the direct primary, the initiative, referendum and recall, but these are confessedly State affairs as yet, and not in the sphere of national politics, so that they cannot there be made the excuse for a party split.

To come close to realities, what marks off the insurgent Republicans from the others is something pretty intangible. It is an attitude, a temperament, rather than a body of political doctrine. If Senator La Follette were to blurt out his inmost feelings about President Taft and the existing leaders of the Republican party, he would say: "I do not like you. I do not trust you." That may be perfectly sincere and even justified; but it is impossible to think of a new party, or a bolting faction, being organized on any such sentiment. Political platforms have to go further than I do not love thee Dr. Fell, the reason why I cannot tell. Until we see something more than that, we shall go on doubting that 1912 will bring a definite breach in the Republican party. This is not saying that the present divisions and animosities are not ominous politically. A vague antagonism of personal dislike may be more deadly than separation on concrete issues. The fact, too, that a Republican President could not get the votes of half the Republican Representatives for the chief measure of his Administration indicates the fearful handicap under which the party is laboring only a year away from the National Convention of 1912. There can be no doubt that the vaunted Republican skill in "getting together" will be put to its supreme test next year.

## A WELL-BALANCED CONSTITUTION.

Amidst all the applause that has greeted Gov. Wilson's magnificent legislative campaign, one good-sized doubt must have risen to plague thoughtful students of our political institutions. It is the same doubt that, in a much aggravated form, afflicted certain doubting philosophers all the years that Gov. Hughes was battling with the New York Legislature. It is all very well to have a reluctant or inefficient Legislature whipped into decency and efficiency by a resolute chief executive. But could a true lover of democracy really view with

satisfaction this method of legislative progress by propulsion from behind? The doubters we have in mind were under no illusions as to the character of a system whose fine flower was revealed in the Alldses, the Grady's, and the McCarrens. Yet overshadowing all the advantages to be gained or expected from an honest, fighting Governor towered the fear of what was going to happen to our governmental system of checks and balances if this sort of thing was allowed to go on. Were we not facing a species of Cæsarism? A benevolent Cæsarism, it is true, but still a Cæsarism. The existence of this doubt has been fully recognized by Gov. Wilson. Repeatedly he has been at pains to explain that his interference in legislative affairs was not coercion, but rather consisted in the removal of "outside" pressure on the Legislature, so that New Jersey's lawmakers might have the opportunity to live up to the very best that was in them.

In all frankness, this explanation of Gov. Wilson's strikes us as somewhat more soothing than it is convincing; and all the more so because any apologia of the sort is quite unnecessary. We may readily admit that it was the Governor's lash that drove the New Jersey Legislature to realize its higher, better self, and yet not admit that he thereby imparted an irreparable shock to our constitutional system. On the contrary, we discern in the situation signal proof of the resources that exist within the constitutional scheme to combat the evils that must from time to time arise within any constitutional order. No one will assert that in their struggles with the Legislature Gov. Hughes and Gov. Wilson resorted to tactics that would render them liable to impeachment. Both men got results by making use of legitimate weapons. Actually, it was one and the same weapon in the case of both men. They simply rallied to their support a great body of public opinion before which bosses and their henchmen were forced to bow. They brought into play their own great popularity against the great unpopularity of their opponents. If they coerced legislators, it was by proving to them unmistakably that the people of their respective States wanted what the Governor wanted. It is not on record that either Hughes or Wilson drove corrupt bargains or practised blackmail. They sim-

ply made the fullest use they could of their own constitutional powers. If that be treason, their opponents were welcome to make the worst of it.

The truth of the matter is that the tactics of a Wilson or a Hughes neither belie nor upset our constitutional theory of checks and balances. Undoubtedly the Fathers set out to establish government by equilibrium. But there is such a thing as stable equilibrium and unstable equilibrium. To-day we confront the latter condition. Under normal conditions, it is unquestionably desirable that the Legislative, the Executive, and the Judiciary should operate without interference each in its appointed sphere. But it is also desirable that when any one of the three departments of government grows derelict in its duty, when the perfect functioning of the machine is impeded by a breakdown in one of its constituent parts, first aid should come from one of the other partners in the constitutional scheme. We are far from contemplating with satisfaction a permanent state of things in which Governors shall bludgeon Legislatures into doing their duty. But the plain facts in the case are that the bludgeoning undeniably has to be done; and the Governor of the State, co-partner of the Legislature in the business of assuring the people a stable form of government, is by no means the worst person to undertake the delicate task of bringing the Legislature to its senses.

Is this the ideal way of repairing breakdowns in our government machine? Admittedly not. In the last resort, it is for the people who tolerate a misrepresentative Legislature to see to it that they shall not continue to be misrepresented. But we are not always a logical people and for the time being the States have fallen into the habit of looking to their Governors to save them from their Legislatures. This will go on until something like a real danger of executive usurpation arises. And then the people will set about electing efficient Legislatures to curb the powers of unduly ambitious executives. For the moment, the danger is not from executive usurpation, but from legislative inefficiency and corruption. And it is surely not detrimental to the Constitution that it should itself provide the means for setting the governmental house in order.

#### FRENCH IDEALISM.

The French Government has formally notified the Powers of its intention to intervene in Morocco. This fact will be immediately seized upon by the cynical observer and brought into juxtaposition with another bit of military news that has just come out of France—namely, the introduction by M. Jaurès in Parliament of his project for abolishing the present organization of the French army and putting in its place a sort of national militia intended solely for home defence. This is the way it always goes, our observer will say. The world talks universal arbitration and goes on building larger Dreadnoughts. The Czar calls the first World Peace Conference and prepares to throttle China and Japan. Great Britain preaches liberty and self-government and swallows the Boer Republics. France, in preparing the subjugation of Morocco with one hand, and with the other spinning fond ideals of an age that knows not war, is quite in the proper tradition. Nations, like individuals, are endowed with the salutary gift of hypocrisy.

The charge is more obvious than true. The hypocrite is rarely a sinister master of dissimulation. Much more often he is a man who is unable to see the incongruity of two opposite lines of action, a defect which in varying degree is common to all of us. The man who pilfers in Wall Street six days in the week is not necessarily the "real" man as opposed to the same individual in his pew on Sunday. He is most often a man unable to see himself as the Comic Spirit sees him. And so with nations. The England that builds Dreadnoughts is no more real than the England that has defended in the past and continues to defend the principles of individual liberty and individual conscience. The American people that was stirred to honest indignation in behalf of Cuba against Spain is no less real than the American people that allowed itself to be carried away into an unwise Imperialism. Subject as all people are to gusts of unjust passion and to the machinations of vicious rulers, they are not the predatory beasts ready to jump at each other's throats that newspaper cartoonists are fond of depicting. To society, as to the individual, we must allow its inconsistencies, hoping only that its good impulses outnumber the bad.

In the case of France we are at liberty to deny that the only real France is whatever complex of selfish interests may now be dictating the subjugation of Morocco. Just as real is the national character that reveals itself in a project like that of M. Jaurès. Actually this plan, visionary as it is pretty sure to seem to every practical statesman and military student, is straight in line with the traditional idealism of the French people. Every people subscribes to the safe doctrine of the brotherhood of man. But France alone, in our times, has produced men who have gone to the extreme of stamping the national flag into the dirt in behalf of the Republic of Man. Every nation plausibly discusses disarmament. But no nation has produced a political leader of repute to advocate the abolition of a standing army. It would be only partly true to say that the author of this revolutionary proposal is Jaurès the Socialist rather than Jaurès the Frenchman. There are Socialists in Germany, but when it comes to a discussion of Germany's war strength the German Socialist subscribes, though silently, to the militarist ideal. There are Socialists in Great Britain, but they are prudent, that is to say, British. The French temper is expressed in Jaurès's retort to Bebel's criticism of the violent tactics pursued by French Socialists: "You Germans have not died on the barricades."

M. Jaurès's bill provides that all citizens between the ages of twenty and forty-five shall contribute to the national defence, from the age of twenty to thirty-four in the active army, from thirty-four to forty in the reserve, from forty to forty-five in the territorial army. The "citizens" of the active army are to be recruited within definite geographical districts and are to be part of the army division assigned to that district. The "education" of the "active" army has three phases, preparatory instruction for children and adolescents, the training of recruits, and periodical "convocations." The preparatory education of children and adolescents, extending from the tenth to the twentieth year, shall not consist in "an apprenticeship anticipatory of military drill," but shall be, above all things, instruction in "health and suppleness," by means of "gymnastics, walking, rhythmic motions, games of agility and skill, and rifle

practice." On reaching their twenty-first year, young men enter a school for recruits for a period of six months. Such schools are not permanent military units like the battalions and regiments of today, but just what the name implies, places of instruction upon graduating from which the citizen-soldier returns to become a member of his local military unit.

The new army is to be officered by men of whom only one-third shall be professional officers who have received a special training. The other two-thirds shall be chosen by a mixed system of seniority and election from among the non-commissioned officers, who, in turn, are to be selected from among the most promising recruits. One interesting provision: workmen's associations, such as labor unions and benefit and coöperative societies, are authorized to set aside funds for the education to the grade of professional officer of such workingmen's sons as have shown exceptional aptitude for the military profession. Another detail: while arms and ammunition are to be stored in local arsenals, in the Department of the East each soldier shall keep his arms in his own house. The Department of the East faces, of course, the German frontier.

But it is in the general declaration with which the Jaurès programme closes that the main interest lies. Articles 16 and 17 declare:

The army thus constituted has for its sole object the defence of national independence and the national soil against all aggression. Every war that is not manifestly defensive is criminal; and it is unmistakably defensive only after the national government has invited the foreign government with which it is in conflict to submit the quarrel to arbitration.

Any government that shall enter into armed conflict without having publicly and sincerely proposed a solution of the quarrel by arbitration, shall be regarded as a traitor to France, and to men, a public enemy of the fatherland, and of humanity. Any Parliament that shall consent to such an act shall be considered guilty of a felony, and as *ipso facto* dissolved. The constitutional and patriotic duty of citizens shall be to shatter such a government and to put into its place a government of good faith. . . . In military circles, the world over, Homeric laughter will resound at this newest manifestation of French madness.

#### A "PURELY AMERICAN" ART.

In his article in the *May Scribner's* on schools and tendencies in art, Mr. Kenyon Cox refers to the "disappointment" of foreign critics at finding American painters so conservative. "Because we are a new people, the world seems to expect of us a new art, radically different in some strange way from the art of older countries." Almost as if in conscious confirmation of this, a special correspondent of the *London Times* now in this country, writing on "Painting in America," does the very thing that Mr. Cox describes. That is to say, he complains of the lack of a thoroughly "indigenous" art. He has pleasant things to say of our artists, especially in landscape, but laments their failure to seize upon distinctively American subjects. These, he says, appeal strongly to every foreign artist visiting the United States, yet the Americans unaccountably pass them by. "The negro is not utilized, neither is the Red Indian." In the recent show of contemporary American art in Washington,

There was hardly any attempt made to make use of the intensely pictorial qualities of modern industrial America, nothing of the splendid glamour of great furnaces, no idealization of the Titanic forces of machinery; no nocturne of Pittsburgh, of the Chicago River, of commercial Philadelphia, or the New York water-front; no vision of mine or workshop or factory.

In so far as this is a demand that American art shall smack of the soil, be wholly original, inventive, daring, bizarre, it is only of a piece with the similar demands so often made by foreigners upon Americans in the province of literature. Your Bryant or Longfellow is all well enough in his way, but what we want is a poet who will typify your prairies and mountains and rivers and great sprawling democracy. There is Whitman, now; he does the queer things we are looking for, and that perhaps is the reason he is more popular in England than in his own country; but we wish to know why you don't give us others like him, or even more revolutionary than him? In architecture, too, there is the same yearning for something "purely American." But on this point there is nothing to add to what Mr. Kenyon Cox says:

If we go on doing the classic thing in architecture until its language has become natural and easy to us, there is a possibility that we may begin to use it originally, and to produce, almost without knowing it, a national style. If we strive for origin-

ability now, there is little hope of anything better than the architectural chaos that we have had so much of.

Our British critic, however, is wide of the fact in supposing that such material for the artist's brush as he refers to has been overlooked by American painters. There has been no lack of recognition of the paintable qualities of negro and Indian, cowboy and roustabout; nor have there been wanting canvases depicting water-fronts and iron-works, slums and factories. If there are fewer of them to-day, the reasons are plain. Such subjects possess the charm of novelty to foreigners, but not to natives. Hence if their appeal is only by virtue of the unusual, it must necessarily be received coldly by the American art-patron. And artists "must live." If their purchasing public is not of the mind of the foreigner who is so eager for what is new and "characteristically American," there is no sense in producing that kind of work. Besides, even for art value and the benefit of the painter himself, there has come to be, as Mr. Cox remarks, a perception of the fact that it is not well to "strain our invention in the effort to discover some new spice for a jaded appetite." And if American artists are more and more abandoning the idea of a native "school," with marked eccentricities or mannerisms, and are more intent upon the task of making themselves continuators of the great tradition in painting, that fact is full of promise that we shall have an American art worth while.

The sound doctrine is admirably stated in Mr. Cox's article. Neither in art nor in literature must we think to get better bread than can be made of wheat. Anything that is straining or convulsive, in the aim to be original, is only an instance of the folly which Burke spoke of as depending more upon invention than experience. So we hope that American art will continue to disappoint foreign critics who expect it to be fantastic and audacious and unlike anything in the heavens above or the earth beneath. If our artists can enter reverently into the heritage of the past and live in its best spirit and add little by little their own interpretations and make their slight additions or variations, they will do more to create a veritable national art than they could by wild experimenting and sensational innovations.

#### SCIENTISTS AND THE MASSES.

"All Planets Inhabited, Says See—Not Mars, Says Aitken." This is a typical newspaper headline relating to the doings and sayings of scientific men. There is nothing specially wrong about it; it indicates as well as could be expected the story that comes under the head. But it would be an interesting study in sociology to find out what is the net impression that the reading of the newspapers leaves upon the popular mind as to the character of scientific thought and the nature of scientific men. Many a candidate for the degree of doctor of philosophy in the social sciences expends his time upon less rewarding material. And the research would have the extremely rare recommendation of furnishing results that would be sure to be at least as entertaining as they were instructive.

Our investigator could perhaps do no better, for a start, than to interview a random lot of the "plain people" on this very matter of Professor See's lecture at Philadelphia and Professor Aitken's lecture at Berkeley. "Professor See," we are told, "laid especial stress upon the proof now deduced that planetary systems similar to our own revolve about all the fixed stars and that these planets are habitable and inhabited like our planets, which revolve about the sun. He said life was a perfectly general phenomenon in the universe and that living beings exist wherever a star twinkles in the depths of space." How does Professor See know this, or how

does he come to think he knows it? Is this simply a personal opinion, reflecting his general notions of the universe, or is it a result of scientific research? Is it likely that by some miraculous stroke of discovery one person has been able to find out that life actually flourishes in countless planets whose very existence is only a matter of inference, when even in the case of our very near neighbor, Mars, it has not yet been possible to settle the comparatively gross question of the "canals"? Questioned on these things, it is highly probable that the ordinary man would not prove to be in a much more enlightened state of mind than the man who said it didn't surprise him that astronomers could find out how far off the stars are, or how they move, or how big they are, but what puzzled him was how anybody ever found out their names.

The sources of popular bemuddlement in regard to science are many. One of them, which lies on the surface, is the inevitable imperfection of the press reports of what scientists say. Professor See, we may surmise, made no such flat and positive statement as is given in the press dispatch. Another source of confusion arises from the fact that an astronomer, or a chemist, or a biologist is a man besides being a scientist, and has the common human weaknesses and failings. When he addresses a general audience, he is prone to forget the principles of scientific doubt which he respects as a worker in his own particular field. Some forty years ago, when science was thrilling with the new impulses that came with Darwinism and the doctrine of the conservation of energy, and spectrum analysis, and "the new chemistry," it was but natural that the world was inclined to look to it for light upon questions far wider even than these, and that some of the conspicuous representatives of science were ready enough to assume the robes which it was thought theology was on the eve of casting off. That sort of thing has gone decidedly out of fashion, but traces of it are still to be found; and, while there are few scientific men who imagine themselves entitled to speak with an accent of authority on the existence of God or on the immortality of the soul, there are not a few who confidently lay down the law on matters of human interest which lie almost as far beyond their province.

A better understanding of the nature and limits of scientific knowledge might exist among the people if, beside the "plebification" of science that is given by newspaper fragments, there were still going on that real popularization of science which had its period of efflorescence thirty or forty years ago. It had its faults, as we have said; but in the main it was a wholesome and educative influence. To listen to a course of lectures on light by Tyndall, to hear Huxley tell of the nature of protoplasm or explain what the Darwinian doctrine really is, to have the meaning of conservation of energy expounded by Helmholtz, was to get, not indeed mastery, but at least some kind of comprehension of what science is and a great deal of real sympathy with its aims and methods. And what the great masters of popularization did superlatively well

was done efficiently also by scores of others. In many minds, to be sure, there were awakened vague hopes that through science we were to have a new heaven and a new earth; hopes the disappointment of which was the theme afterward of such lucubrations as Brunetière's "Faillite de la Science." But science had not gone into bankruptcy; it had never made the promises which it was alleged to have broken. Its real history, in the past half-century, as in the centuries before, has been one of steady striving toward such truths as can be extorted from the physical universe by patient inquiry; and never have its discoveries been more abundant or more valuable. But the fitful glimpses of the new lands which the world gets in press dispatches are quite as likely to be mere mirages as anything more substantial.

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF SCIENCES.

WASHINGTON, April 23.

The annual spring meeting of the Academy has just been held (April 18-20), in the splendid new building of the National Museum, with three business sections, and three afternoons for the reading of scientific communications. These comprised three papers on astronomy, one on mathematics, one on meteorology, six on geology, mineralogy, or paleontology, four on biological subjects, and three on anthropology and ethnology. Thirty-one titles appeared upon the programme, making it unusually long. No paper on physics or chemistry proper or botany was read.

W. W. Campbell, director of the Lick Observatory, communicated together two papers, "On the Motions of the Brighter Helium Stars" and a "Report of Progress in Spectrographic Determinations of Stellar Motions." The great problem in astronomy at present is that of the construction of the universe, and of the motions of the so-called fixed stars through space. This is being attacked in a large way by Kapteyn of Groningen, by Boss of Albany, and by Campbell; but whereas Boss confines himself to the *proper* motions of the stars, that is, those not toward or away from us, Campbell confines himself to the latter motions, that is, those in the line of sight. Such motions can be detected only by the displacement of the lines in the spectra of the stars, as measured on photographs. Stars are classified by their spectra according to their age, in the Harvard system the newest being denoted by A, the oldest by N. Among these our sun occupies an intermediate position, in class G. The present investigation is based on the

spectra of some 1,200 stars, out of which 1,047 have been selected, all observed at the Lick Observatory or its southern extension at Santiago de Chile. These are all of class B, or rather new stars, characterized by the prominence of the lines of helium and having a total velocity in space of about twelve kilometers per second, whereas the old or red stars have about thirty-five kilometers per second, while the velocity in the line of sight is about one-half these. The effect of pressure in the star atmospheres on absorption of the light increases the wave-length in the newest and oldest stars, and consequently the velocities determined from them are different from those determined from the middle classes, the result being that the velocity of the solar system through space appears greater when determined by means of the old and new stars than when determined by means of stars similar to the sun. There is thus a sort of community of interest between our sun and stars of similar age and spectra, in the matter of motion. Another important result is that the dimensions of the universe must be enlarged above previous estimates.

F. R. Moulton of the University of Chicago presented a paper entitled "The Evolution of Periodic Solutions of the Problem of Three Bodies." The most celebrated problem of celestial mechanics, that of the general motion of three bodies drawn together by the law of gravitation, has never been completely solved from the time of Laplace until now. Particular solutions have to be sought by introducing simplifying assumptions. If the mass of one body is negligible in comparison with that of the two others, we know that these two will revolve around their common centre of gravity. Such motions of the third infinitesimal body are sought by Mr. Moulton, as shall make its orbit closed, or reentrant after a revolution. Such solutions have been obtained by Hill, in which the third body moves around the smaller of the other two; Moulton finds under what conditions it can move around either; Sir George Darwin, by a laborious process of approximation, finds orbits of similar type, and Moulton, by an analytical process different from those of Hill and Darwin, finds several new types of orbit surrounding either body, and three more outside both bodies. The results of these investigations should lead to a method for exact confirmation of the law of gravitation.

W. M. Davis of Harvard gave a paper entitled "Corollaries of the Theory of Isostasy." This word, invented by the American geologist Dutton, indicates the state of the earth's crust which would obtain if, in spite of elevations and depressions of the surface, the whole mass above a certain depth were the same at one point as at another,

the extra volume in mountainous regions being compensated by a defect of mass underneath, and vice versa. This condition has been shown to hold generally in the United States by J. F. Hayford, in what has been characterized as one of the greatest contributions to geodesy since Gauss. Professor Davis points out that if isostasy obtains now, it has probably been prevalent through long geologic periods, so that if a lowland rises its density must be lessened; also, if a mountain range is worn down to a pene-plain, nearly at sea-level, it is difficult to see how the mass has been gained below for compensation. Moreover, in the Himalayas, one of the newest mountain regions, the compensation is very complete, while in the Harz and in the Tonga, deep in the Pacific, it is imperfect. If the corollary is true, the geologist still has these matters to explain.

C. D. Walcott, secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, gave an account of "A Geological Reconnaissance in the Rocky Mountains of British Columbia," which brought to light many astonishingly perfect fossils. In the neighborhood of Mt. Stephen, which forms a block 12,000 feet thick, many fossils were found representing very highly developed forms of life, nearly at the base of the oldest fossil-bearing Cambrian rocks. The simpler forms which preceded these were not found. As the trilobites have hitherto been regarded as the highest form of life in the Cambrian, these discoveries are of great interest.

In a paper on "Biological Conclusions Drawn from the Evolution of the *Titanotheres*," H. F. Osborn, president of the American Museum of Natural History, attacked the fundamental question of the laws of formation of new characters, remarking upon the advantage possessed by the paleontologist in being able to examine the records of three to eight hundred thousand years of development, while the zoologist sees only those of his own lifetime. The question is whether, as was formerly supposed, evolution is gradual, or, as is suggested by Bateson and De Vries, proceeds by sudden saltations or mutations. Most experimental evolutionists now believe in changes by jumps. Mr. Osborn considered three forms of change, namely, increase in size, loss of parts, and variation in proportion of different parts. In the matter of proportion he finds no ancestral control, but a change once started keeps on. The structure of the teeth, on the other hand, shows a progressive development of new characteristics, always in an orderly and definite manner, and under ancestral control.

In the absence of the author, an interesting paper by Dr. Simon Flexner, director of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, on "Infantile Paralysis and Its Mode of Transmission," was

read. This mysterious disease, in from 5 to 10 per cent. of cases, is followed by permanent paralysis, and in 75 per cent. by crippling. In the first epidemic in 1907 there were 2,500 cases in and about New York city. No State has escaped its ravages, and the number of cases is estimated at 20,000, the number of cripples at from 10,000 to 15,000. The disease has been found to be due to a specific micro-organism which attacks the spinal chord or the brain. This germ has been known for a year and a half, and experiments on its transmission to monkeys have shown the great value of animal experimentation. The germ is very minute and passes through the finest filters. It is spread by contact with an infected person, and can also be carried by healthy persons. It is generally communicated through the nasal passages. The disease must be combated by isolation of the patient and the disinfection or destruction of his nasal discharges. No cure is known, so that prevention only is possible. The summer months are those of greatest prevalence, and there is great danger of communication in schools, country fairs, or Fourth of July celebrations.

Last year Franz Boas of Columbia University gave an interesting report on "Changes in Bodily Form of Descendants of Immigrants," and this year he brought further information on the subject. In order to investigate the hereditary stability or plasticity of human types as affected by environment, it is necessary to consider that the growth of various organs goes on for different periods. For instance, measurements of the skeleton made after the nineteenth year in males and the sixteenth in females do not greatly change, but environment may affect the weight until later. This may affect the stature in males until fifteen years, and in females until thirteen. The American environment does not affect the growth of the head after the age of two years. As a matter of fact, taking the proper characteristics for measurement, it is found that the American environment produces a marked effect, even changing the shape of the face. This effect is probably in part due to better nutrition and in part to the smaller prevalence of children's diseases.

At the annual dinner, the Henry Draper medal was presented to C. G. Abbot, director of the Smithsonian Astrophysical Observatory, for his work on the exact determination of the solar constant, that is, the amount of heat reaching us from the sun. A graceful speech showing the reasons for the presentation was made by W. W. Campbell, to whom the medal was awarded last year. Whitman Cross was elected treasurer, A. A. Noyes and E. G. Conklin members of the council, and the following nine new members: Edwin

Emerson Barnard, astronomer, Yerkes Observatory; Edward Burr Van Vleck, mathematician, University of Wisconsin; John Fillmore Hayford, engineer and geodesist, Northwestern University; Julius Oscar Stieglitz, chemist, University of Chicago; Bertram Borden Boltwood, radio-chemist, Yale University; James Furman Kemp, geologist, Columbia University; Arthur Louis Day, geophysicist, Carnegie Institution, Washington; and Robert Almer Harper, botanist, University of Chicago. As foreign associates were elected Prof. Ernest Rutherford, the authority on radioactivity, of the University of Manchester, England, and Vito Volterra, professor of mathematical physics at the University of Rome.

ARTHUR GORDON WEBSTER.

#### NEWS FOR BIBLIOPHILES.

Ninety-nine years ago, on June 24, 1812, at a dinner held to celebrate the sale at auction for £2,260 of the Duke of Roxburghe's copy of the first edition of Boccaccio (Venice, Valdarfer, 1471), the Roxburghe Club was formed. If phenomenally high prices are a warrant for the formation of a book club, American Bibliophiles ought to get together at the close of the Hoe sale and form a Robert Hoe Club.

The Duke of Roxburghe's library, 9,353 lots, which cost him about £5,000, brought £23,341. And, while no accurate estimate of the cost to Mr. Hoe of any large portion of his library can be made, it is certain that remarkable advances upon costs were paid upon many lots sold during the first week of the sale, which began at the new rooms of the Anderson Auction Company on the afternoon of April 24.

Every one has now heard of the great sum, \$50,000, paid for the Gutenberg Bible, the Perkins-Ashburnham copy on vellum, with two leaves in facsimile, which brought £4,000 at the Ashburnham sale in 1897, and of the \$21,000 paid for the "Helyas, Knight of the swanne," printed on vellum by Wynken de Worde in 1512, which had sold for £410 at auction at Christie's in 1899. While these sums are tremendous and heretofore unheard of in the annals of book-collecting, they cannot, after due consideration, be regarded as unwarranted.

The Gutenberg Bible on vellum is the world's masterpiece of typography, the invention of which was coincident with the fall of Constantinople in 1453, a date often considered as the end of the Middle Ages. The revival of learning could have come but slowly except for the invention of printing. It is an easy matter for the wealthy American to find fifty thousand dollars, but where can he find such another monument, such a mile-stone in the world's progress?

The Hoe catalogue stated that the "Helyas" was the only book printed on vellum by Wynken de Worde, but the National Library in Paris has another specimen, also unique. Watson's translation of the "Ship of Fools," printed by Wynken de Worde in 1509. As a specimen of typography, the "Helyas" is poor and unattractive when compared with books on vellum issuing from Continental presses, but it is one of the two known books on vellum from any

English press of so early date, and \$21,000 could not buy another.

There is less warrant for many other high prices paid at the Hoe sale. Mr. Hoe's copy of the first edition of Gray's "Elegy" (1751) at \$4,500 is certainly a dearly bought book. The book is like the first editions of other classics, such as the "Vicar of Wakefield" and "The Deserted Village," always in demand, but always procurable without much difficulty. Probably twenty copies could be traced in America. The highest previous auction record in this country is \$740, paid at the McKee sale in 1902, though this same copy when sold at Sotheby's in the Van Antwerp sale in 1907 brought £205.

"The Embarzo" (Boston, 1808), William Cullen Bryant's first publication, a little pamphlet of twelve pages, is a rare book, but \$3,350 is a high price to pay for it. Mr. Hoe's copy sold in the Hoffman sale in 1877 for \$17, and again in the Hawkins sale in 1887 for \$41.50. Mr. Hoe acquired the book with the N. Q. Pope library. Mr. Sturges's copy (formerly Charles Eliot Norton's) cost him \$200 about 1896. Less than ten years ago the Boston Athenaeum found a duplicate among some pamphlets and sold it for \$550. This copy, in the original paper cover, untrimmed, the only one known in this condition, is now in the Wakeman collection. The Boston Athenaeum still has a copy bound up with other pamphlets, and there is a copy in the Harvard Library. The latter, a cut copy, bound up with the second edition, has the following autograph inscription on the title-page: "At the time I wrote this poem I was attending the district school in Cummington, County of Hampshire, Cambridge, Sept. 29th, 1860. Wm. Cullen Bryant."

Boethius's "De Consolatione Philosophiae" in Latin and Flemish (Ghent, 1485) the copy which brought £52 at the Syston-Park sale in 1884 and \$145 at the Ives sales in 1891, sold for \$4,900, and was bought by a Paris bookseller. This is perhaps the most spectacular advance in price on any book in the sale.

Hakluyt's "Voyages" (1599-1600), with the exceedingly rare map by Edward Wright, engraved by Molynaux, in its first state, the copy which sold for \$225 in the Ives sale, but which had previously brought £131 in 1881, now sold for \$3,400. Only three other copies with the map are known in America.

Boccaccio's "De la Ruyne des nobles hommes et femmes" (Bruges, Colard Mansion 1476), the copy which sold in the Ashburnham sale in 1897 for £695, brought \$7,000.

The first edition of "The Book of St. Albans" (1486), the copy which sold for £385 in the Ashburnham sale in 1897, brought \$12,000. Blake's "Milton," the Hamilton Palace copy, which sold for £230 in 1882, brought \$9,000. The uncut Kilmarnock Burns, which Mr. Hoe bought privately for (it is said) \$500, brought \$5,600. Cowley's "Poetical Blossoms" (1633), the copy which sold for \$220 in the Foote sale in 1895, brought \$510. Chapman's "Seven Books of the Iliades," with "Achilles Shield" (both 1598), the fine copy in the original vellum covers, which sold for £291 in 1904, brought \$3,000.

Many other instances of extraordinary advances in price might be noted. Whether there has been a corresponding advance in the market value of all rare books, or

whether it is Mr. Hoe's books which collectors are particularly eager for, time must tell.

## Correspondence

### GERMANY AND INTERNATIONAL PEACE

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The splendid sarcasm of your leading article on "Arbitration and 'Realities'" (April 20) is as convincing as it is delightful. It is recognized by all but the Jingoes in every land that the delusion of militarism must ultimately throw the credit of nations into the melting-pot, but unfortunately these Jingoes are frequently intrenched in such citadels that they will continue to wield power, unless they are overthrown by internal revolutions which Sir Edward Grey has had the courage to foresee. Herr von Bethmann-Hollweg's effusion on the absurdity of arbitration, which furnished the text for the *Nation's* article, illustrates the difficulty to which I refer. The German Chancellor has relied largely on the Agrarian party for the maintenance of his power, and these men are notoriously reactionary to the core. They are the real rulers of Germany. Not only do they exercise undue influence in the Reichstag by virtue of an antiquated distribution of seats, which militates strongly against the industrial districts of the Rhineland, but they furnish the bulk of the high officials of the German government. Such men are born and reared in the traditions of militarism and diplomacy of the old school, they thrive on the habit of dictating to other nations their line of action, and they have no desire to lose their occupation.

It is not too much to say that the incalculable ambitions of Germany constitute the greatest obstacle to the future peace of the world. The Germany of the early nineteenth century was romantic, cosmopolitan, highly idealistic; since the brutal days of 1862-1870, it has been transformed utterly, and imbued with the imperious and unscrupulous spirit of Bismarck. Whether conquests by the sword in Europe itself are desired or even contemplated, may well be doubted; but no one familiar with the history of the last fifteen years can deny that the various incidents which have more than once brought Europe to the verge of war have been inspired by Berlin, and to a lesser extent by Vienna. The Kruger telegram drew the first bad blood with England. France's colonial adventures, which ended so ingloriously at Fashoda, were encouraged by Bismarck. Then came the fanfare over Morocco which led to the Algeciras Conference, when Germany was repressed by measures in which the United States played a notable part. Lastly, there was the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina in October, 1908, which was finally consummated only when the Kaiser donned his "shining armor" and gave Russia twenty-four hours to yield. No other nation has shown a similar determination to interfere on all occasions and to wield the mailed fist so persistently.

Here is the primary cause of bloated armaments—fear of Germany. The other nations cannot forget the conduct of Bismarck, and they are determined not to be victims as were Denmark and Austria and France. Fortunately for us, we are not

concerned in the immediate squabble of European Powers, but official Germany is decidedly hostile to us. The Berlin press delights to heap abuse on our institutions, our people, and our policy. Nothing would give it greater pleasure than to see us involved in complications with Mexico; the dislike undoubtedly felt for us in many parts of South America is hailed as evincing the decline of our diplomacy, and as portending future trouble; in the Far East German influence is consistently used against us. The taming of Germany is the first task to be accomplished before the reign of peace is in sight.

There are undoubtedly many other obstacles to the "great design": the historical rivalries of centuries must be composed; Europe and Asia must settle their political frontiers on principles which recognize completely nationality and race and language—an obstacle all too frequently overlooked; international law must be codified; most important of all, perhaps, nations must be brought to a better mutual comprehension and appreciation. Progress may be slow, but it will be sure; is indeed being made every day. But before a large success can attend the efforts to restrain the appeal to the sword, the world at large must proclaim that no one nation shall disturb the peace to protect supposed interests or to satisfy the whim of a privileged class, and a self-confident monarch. Far be it from me to deny to Germany a legitimate place in the councils and trade of the world—that is a *sine qua non* of international dynamics, but it is absurd that any nation should carry its self-assertion to a point where it is intolerable to its peace-loving neighbors.

BERNADOTTE E. SCHMITT.

Western Reserve University, April 24.

### THE KING JAMES BIBLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The tercentenary of the King James version of the Bible has naturally called forth many exhibitions of Biblical texts, as well as magazine and newspaper articles, upon our English versions. Without any especial effort to collect them, I have noted some twenty recent articles—many of them illustrated with reproductions—dealing more or less with the King James version, and in many cases with its bibliographical characteristics. Although the identification of the text of the first issue is still a vexed question, despite the efforts in years past of Fry, Lenox, and many others, and the comparatively recent and more detailed examinations of Plomer and Smith, the identification of the title pages has been more nearly settled. It has been interesting to note, however, the frequency with which, in reproducing title pages, the recent periodical articles have chosen that of the New Testament. While the 1611 Bible is not a great rarity, the choice of the New Testament title has probably been for one of two reasons: either the first title has been lacking or defective, or doubt has been felt whether the title in possession really was that of the first issue of the first edition, sometimes called 1611 A. On the front cover of the issue of March 30 of the *Continent*, a religious paper published in this city and Chicago, appears a reproduction of the well-known

woodcut first title, labelled, "The First King James Bible." An article in the body of the paper leaves it to be plainly inferred that the reproduction is made from the copy in the Lenox Library. But the details of this reproduction do not agree with the characteristics of the first issue, 1611 A, as given by Mr. Lenox himself in his privately printed pamphlet, "Early Editions of the King James Bible," nor with those given by Francis Fry, nor with the full-size reproduction given in Lovett's "English Bible in the Rylands Library."

Did the Lenox Library authorities, by an oversight, allow the reproduction to be made from the second issue of the 1611 edition, or have they new facts to present proving the title page under discussion to be that of the first issue? The latter alternative seems exceedingly improbable and at present it is, of course, impossible to visit the Lenox collection for purposes of verification. I believe that Mr. Lenox had four copies of the 1611 and 1613 editions, among them one of the first issue, and it seems at least very regrettable that the right one was not reproduced. Such mistakes throw discredit on our claims to possess treasures, and in this case certainly reflect on the memory of one of our greatest book collectors and eminent benefactors.

It may be worth mentioning in passing that the copper plate title executed by Boel—which rarely occurs, but when found is usually in the first issue of 1611 A—is, I believe, to be reproduced by the American Bible Society upon the programme for their tercentenary meeting. The reproduction is made from a beautiful copy of the first issue, containing a certification by Francis Fry, now in the possession of the General Theological Seminary Library of this city.

EDWARD HARMON VIRGIN.

General Theological Seminary, New York, April 28.

### "TELL ME WHERE IS FANCY BRED."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of March 30, Mr. Hanford comments on the similarity of Shakespeare's "Tell me where is fancy bred" and Raleigh's "A Poesy to Prove that Affection is Not Love." The idea is not peculiar to the English writers, but occurs in the Greek of Achilles Tatius:

Κάλλος γάρ οὐδέποτε πιττάσκει βέλους, καὶ διὰ τῶν θεραπευτῶν εἰς τὴν φυχὴν καταρρέει. Οὐθελλοῦς γάρ οὐδὲ δραπετῶν τραύματα. (Achilles Tatius de Leu- cippes et Clitophonitis amoribus liber primus.)

The nearest approach to the verses quoted is found, however, in a Spanish anonymous novel, "Question de amor," which appeared in Valencia in 1513, and was translated into French in 1541. Love is defined there as follows:

Es cosa que nace de la fantasía,  
y ponese en medio de la voluntad,  
su causa primera produce bendad,  
la vista la engendra el corazón la crie,  
sostiene la vida pena porfa,  
dale salid dudosa esperanza,  
si tal es qual due no haze mudanza,  
ni allí donde está nunca entra alegría.

In the same novel we find a stag shedding tears and a melancholy gentleman watching him with commiseration.

JOSEPH DE PEROTT.

Worcester, Mass., April 20.

## SPENSER AND ROMANTICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Interesting as a sign that a whole-some reaction is setting in against the all too prevalent tendency nowadays to regard the literature of the eighteenth century merely as a sort of preserve for the romanticism-hunter is the paper by Dr. Herbert E. Cory on "Spenser, Thomson, and Romanticism" in the recently issued number of the Publications of the Modern Language Association of America (xix, 1). It may be questioned, however, whether Dr. Cory does not go too far in minimizing the influence of Spenser on the romantic movement.

That Spenser should have come to be a factor in the romantic reaction against neo-classicism will, I think, seem inevitable, if we keep in mind the fundamental doctrines of neo-classicism, on the one hand, and of romanticism, on the other. The basic principle of neo-classic doctrine was that the ultimate end of poetry was to teach. The immediate end, of course, was to please. It pleased, however, not because the giving of pleasure was in itself an end worthy to be striven for, but because it was only by giving pleasure that poetry could be most effective in teaching. It followed as a corollary to this, that the reason or judgment had always to keep a pretty tight rein over the fancy or imagination. Fancy "leaps and frisks," and is not always mindful of the reader's edification. Hence it had to be controlled, and hence the rules, which were simply the means of securing this control. Not only was the observance of the rules thought necessary to procure proper and effective instruction; it was thought necessary, also, to procure the depiction of the truly beautiful. "The only certain way to please," says Rapin ("Reflections on Aristotle," section xi, Rymer's translation), "is by the rules." "But let the imagination be never so strong, and fertile of ideas," says Gildon ("The Complete Art of Poetry"), "without the assistance of judgment (which can only be informed and directed by the stated rules), there can be nothing produced entirely beautiful." The observance of the rules made it certain, in the eyes of the neo-classicists, that the fictions of poetry would be kept well within the bounds of the credible; and that for them was an important matter, for whatever could not possibly be believed in must, in their opinion, necessarily be unpleasing.

Romanticism, now—whatever else it may stand for—stands primarily for the exaltation of the imagination over the reason. As for the ultimate end of art, the romanticists took for granted that it was to give pleasure; at any rate, they felt no compelling necessity to be instructive.

Romanticism is thus sharply opposed to neo-classicism on fundamentals. The early romanticists were more or less conscious of this, and as soon as they felt themselves drifting away from the orthodox position, naturally looked about them for support. That they should have turned to Spenser was inevitable. Spenser was the poet who most nearly typified the romantic ideal, and the only English epic poet besides Milton whom Englishmen could venture to place in the same category with Homer and Virgil. The neo-classicists themselves, to be sure, regarded Spenser as, in a way, a classic, but a classic who could not safely

be followed in all respects. His exuberant imagination and his fondness for the marvellous offended them. Dryden had said of him that "no man was ever born with a greater genius," but that he should have had a course of reading in "the rules of Bossu" (Dedication of the "Aeneis"); and Rymer had remarked (Preface to Rapin's "Reflections") that "he suffered himself to be misled by Ariosto, with whom blindly rambling on marvellous adventures, he makes no conscience of probability." These judgments were echoed by the smaller fry of critics, and may be accepted as expressing substantially the opinion of the Augustans. Spenser was a poet of the school of Ariosto, and, as Rapin had pointed out ("Reflections on Aristotle," section xi), it was characteristic of those who were "possessed by the romantic poetry" of this school that they "regarded no other rules than what the heat of their own genius inspired." But the very qualities in Spenser that displeased the orthodox neo-classicists pleased those who were romantically inclined, as the attitude toward him of the early romantic critics pretty clearly shows.

Of the little group of romantic, or romantically inclined, critics which included the Wartons and Hurd, Hurd is by far the most outspoken in favor of the romantic ideal of art. In his "Dissertation on the Idea of Universal Poetry" he points out that pleasure, not instruction, is the ultimate and appropriate end of poetry, and that poetry, therefore, aims "not to represent the fairest objects only, but to represent them in the fairest lights, and to heighten all their beauties up to the possibility of their nature; nay, to outstrip nature, and to address itself to our wildest fancy, rather than to our judgment and cooler sense." It is not strange, therefore, he further observes, that "of all the forms in which poetry has appeared, that of pagan fable, and Gothic romance should, in their turns, be found the most alluring to the true poet." In the "Letters on Chivalry and Romance," he enlarges on this point, and declares Gothic manners and fictions better adapted to the ends of poetry than classic. Both Spenser and Milton, he points out, are thoroughly imbued with the romantic spirit, though Milton has preferred—after some hesitation, however—to cast his great poem in the classic mould. The fact that the "two greatest of our poets, at least the two which an English reader is most fond to compare with Homer"—Spenser and Milton—are thoroughly romantic in their sympathies and in most of their work, may very well, he observes, "incline us to think with more respect than is commonly done of the Gothic manners . . . as adapted to the uses of the greater poetry." The "Faerie Queene," in particular, he defends against the charges usually brought against it by the classicists, by declaring that it is an epic constructed on Gothic ideas, and, therefore, must be judged according to Gothic rather than classic principles. In so far as the plan of the "Faerie Queene" is bad, it is bad, he says, mainly because Spenser, apparently as an afterthought, endeavored to make it conform to the classic idea of unity by introducing the character of Prince Arthur as the supreme hero. As for the classic objections to the marvellous, he remarks that, though we may properly insist upon a pretty close following of nature in the case of poetry which professes to depict

men and manners or which addresses itself directly to the heart, with "the more sublime and creative poetry" the case is different. "This species, addressing itself solely or principally to the imagination . . . has no need to observe those cautious rules of credibility so necessary to be followed by him who would touch the affections and interest the heart." And he concludes his last letter with the significant remark that, "in spite of philosophy and fashion, Fairy Spenser still ranks highest among the poets; I mean with all those who are either come of that house, or have any kindness for it."

Here, it seems to me, we have the issue between classicism and romanticism pretty sharply defined, and defined, too, in such a way as to indicate that the influence of Spenser counted as a not inconsiderable factor on the side of romanticism.

EDWARD FULTON.

Urbana, Ill., April 24.

## UNCUT LEAVES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: *De gustibus non disputandum*—but it may be permitted to an audacious man to express them. So, after reading the complaint of "An Old Student" in this week's *Nation*, I want to proclaim with boldness and strenuousness equal to his and seeking the same wide publicity, that I like the looks of uncut edges; that I like to cut the leaves of a book; that I do not find it a tax on either my time, my muscles, or my nerves to cut my periodicals. Really, Sir, I used to like the *Nation* better when it came uncut.

And, again, I decidedly do not approve of "today," "tonight," and "tomorrow"—vagaries of a "simplified" spelling, which is anything and everything rather than simplified. Even granting the strange assumption of the simplifiers that the chief function of a spelled word is to be spoken, does not the hyphen in "to-day" and its fellows serve a useful purpose? To my ear there is a catch in these words, when pronounced, after the first syllable which approximates the Semitic alif as nearly as anything I know in English. Why not keep the hyphen to indicate it?

This from one who, to forestall the reply of all old students, cheerfully signs himself

AN OLD FOEGY.

New York, April 28.

## ENGLISH EXTRAORDINARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a recent issue of an educational magazine there is an interesting article on high school work in English. Written by a university professor of English, it naturally contains pertinent and valuable suggestions. At the same time, it contains some remarkable English sentences. Here is one that is taken from a set of examination questions prepared by the author of the article:

State very briefly the substance of either one of the "Idylls of the King," or one of Milton's shorter poems, or of a long poem of any other poet except Shakespeare.

The defects in this sentence are too obvious to call for comment, yet they hardly prepare us for the following astonishing exhibition of periodic structure which is to

be found on the same page of the article in question:

In the first place, I speak for my department as a whole though of course not for every individual member of the department, as far as I know, but I think I speak for many more than my own department here at the University as a whole—I think I speak for a good many people who are teaching college English, when I say, that so far as literature is concerned, if when a man or woman comes up here he has learned to read intelligently, and has some general idea of the substance of a certain very few important things, such as for example some general idea of the form of a play as it differs from that of a novel, some general idea of how the reading of poetry differentiates itself emotionally from the reading of prose, and some general idea of the substance of certain two or three or more—it makes no special difference—poems and pieces of prose which he can use as landmarks, more or less as nuclei around which his general knowledge of a period can cluster—if he has that, and if he has in addition to that as clear a knowledge, say, of the history of English literature in its relation to its own time as, let us say by way of illustration, he has of ancient history in general, if he has taken a course in that—if he has these three things, we do not care at all what he has or has not read.

What would a student say of the professor himself as a master of style? Would he readily take as a model the long sentence quoted above, which contains two hundred and fifty-six words? And if his own language should be criticised as inelegant, might he not justly say he had not strained our vernacular as badly as the professor, one of whose sentences reads, "We do not fail a student for his use of hanging participles or split infinitives?"

EDMUND H. SEARS.

St. Louis, April 20.

## Literature

### PROFESSOR FRAZER'S TREATISE ON TOTEMISM.

*Totemism and Exogamy. A Treatise on Certain Early Forms of Superstition and Society.* By J. G. Frazer, professor of social anthropology in the University of Liverpool. In four volumes. New York: Macmillan & Co. \$16 net.

It is a singular and a rather melancholy fact that the rise of an interest in the habits and beliefs of primitive or savage man should have coincided with the opening of a period destined to see their disappearance. Though travellers from Herodotus down to Captain Cook and Catlin and Charles Darwin and Sven Hedin have, from time to time, inquired into and recorded the customs of the aboriginal tribes whom they visited, the systematic study of those customs is a very recent affair, scarcely older than the middle of the nineteenth century, by which time it began to be evident that with the new facilities which steam transportation was providing for the spreading out of the civilized nations, the aboriginal peoples must soon either disappear or be subjugated and transformed. Within the last thirty years, the process of subjugation and transformation has gone on apace.

Fifty years hence, it will probably be only in the central forests of Africa and of South America and among Polar snows that there will remain any tribes preserving ancient ways and superstitions, such as those which three thousand years ago prevailed almost everywhere, and five hundred years ago still prevailed over six-sevenths of the globe. Much has been irretrievably lost, because competent observers were not at hand to gather and record the usages of expiring tribes. Much, however, has also been rescued and preserved by travellers who, during the last half-century, have noted and recorded the phenomena on the spot, and by scientific students who have compared and sifted and classified the phenomena so recorded. Among this latter class of collectors and classifiers, no name stands higher than that of Professor Frazer. His famous work on nature superstitions, called "The Golden Bough," published more than twenty years ago, established his reputation for acuteness and penetration, as well as for diligence and accuracy; and his later writings have sustained that reputation.

The present book consists of four parts. It begins with three articles, written, the first in 1887, for the ninth edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*; the second and third long afterwards, for the English *Fortnightly Review*. These three are entitled respectively "Totemism," "The Origin of Totemism," and "Beginnings of Religion and Totemism among the Australian Aborigines." These articles fill 172 pages of Volume I. Next follows the main part of the book, called "An Ethnographical Survey of Totemism." It occupies two-thirds of Volume I and the whole of Volumes II and III. Thirdly, we have, in the fourth and concluding volume, the part called "Summary and Conclusion," and the fourth part, called "Notes and Corrections," to which, respectively, 169 and 148 pages are allotted. This singular arrangement gives us three considerable articles which represent an earlier stage of the author's researches and thoughts, followed by a vast accumulation of data, gathered at various times, and by a large number of illustrations, amplifications, and corrections, both of the three articles and of the ethnographic data. One cannot but think that it would have been more satisfactory if the three articles and the summary had been remoulded and expanded so as to include the illustrations and corrections and to represent the author's latest conclusions in a complete and systematized form. We must, however, assume that there were good reasons for this deviation from what might have seemed the obvious scheme of such a book. As indolence is the last charge any one would bring against a scholar so careful and industrious as Mr. Frazer long ago prov-

ed himself to be, there must evidently have been other grounds prescribing the scheme we find.

The most novel, and so far the most important, part of the work is the vast collection of facts regarding these institutions—totemism and exogamy—which fill about two-thirds of these four bulky volumes. Totemism, let it be said in passing, is defined by Mr. Frazer as "the intimate relation which is supposed to exist between a group of kindred people on the one side and a species of natural or artificial objects on the other side, which objects are called the totems of the human group." Exogamy, of course, is the rule which forbids a man belonging to a particular clan or other kindred group to marry a woman belonging to the same group. The facts make reading which is curious, and indeed even fascinating in the light they throw on primitive or savage man, and in the many obscure problems which they raise, some of which our author does not claim to have solved. Some, indeed, may appear to be, in the present state of our knowledge, insoluble. The data have been gathered from the observations of many travellers in many parts of the world. Till we had perused the elaborate table of contents we had not, and we suspect that few people have, realized the very wide diffusion of both institutions and their existence in very similar forms in tribes so different not only in physical and linguistic character, but also in the scale of civilization they have reached, as are the Iroquois of North America, compared with the aborigines of Central Australia, who are among the most backward of all savages. The most abundant data for the study of totemistic customs are furnished by the Australian tribes and by those Red Indians of North America who dwelt east of the Rocky Mountains, for among both of these it seems to be virtually universal. But there is also plenty of evidence of the presence of the institution in New Guinea and other islands of the Eastern Archipelago (traces have been noted in the Philippines), in the island groups of the Pacific, in South Africa, and East Africa among the Bantu races, as well as in West Africa among some of the various negro groups. It is found in India and among the Indo-Chinese of the Siamese peninsula; as also in parts of Northern Asia. One may indeed say, surveying the savage and barbarous peoples generally, that it is only in America among some of the Pacific slope tribes as well as among the Eskimos and other tribes of the farthest north, in Eastern Asia, and perhaps also in North Africa that totemism does not exist, or has not at some time existed. There are, indeed, far fewer evidences of it among the Indians of Central and South America than there are in North America,

where it is widespread; but it must be remembered that the customs of the South American races have been less fully studied. Whether it formerly existed among the Semitic peoples and among the ancestors of the Celts and the Teutons and the Italo-Hellenic races is deemed by Mr. Frazer to be very doubtful. Traces may be noted here and there of animal worship and peculiar customs connected with animals and plants which point that way. An inquirer so able and acute as Salomon Reinach discovers it among the Celts and Greeks; and the late Prof. William Robertson Smith, one of the most powerful and well-stored minds of his generation, gave strong grounds in his "Kinship and Marriage in Early Arabia" for recognizing it as formerly fully developed among at least one great branch of the Semitic race. Mr. Gomme points out relics of it in Britain; N. W. Thomas detects it in Wales (see references to these writers in Vol. IV, 13). Mr. Frazer is, however, deterred from accepting these suggestions by the absence among the peoples referred to of any evidence of a classificatory system of relationship. About ancient Egypt, however, there can be no doubt. Herodotus described totemism without knowing what it was, and the Romans were disgusted by something of the kind among their Egyptian subjects as late as the days of Juvenal.

This remarkably wide diffusion of a singular institution, the singularity of which can be duly appreciated only by examining it in those details so copiously supplied in these volumes, suggests the question whether it has been spread from one race to another by way of imitation, or has been a natural growth, springing up independently in divers parts of the world. Our author holds the latter view, moved thereto by a consideration of the difficulty of supposing that races so far removed from one another and so divided by vast oceans as the Australian aborigines are from those of Africa and North America, could have formed such customs by means of any borrowing. This conclusion, which seems to be a just one, points to a significant observation and suggests an important question. The observation is that we must beware of assuming that the various linguistic or ethnical groups of mankind have each of them a special and distinctive set of superstitions, or beliefs, or institutions. Just as similar folk-lore tales are found among peoples very dissimilar and remote in place from one another, just as similar games are found played by men of races which must have become separated from any common stock at points of time immeasurably distant, so similar institutions also are found among very diverse races. Thirty years ago, there was a school of historians who,

pointing to the Homeric agora, and the Roman comitia, and the Teutonic folk-mot, treated the institution of a popular assembly of the tribe meeting under its chief as being characteristic of the so-called "Aryan" peoples. But we now know that the Kaffirs of South Africa have such meetings, just as the early Teutons and the early Greeks had; and it is quite likely that similar meetings exist or have existed among other uncivilized races also. There are, indeed, traces of them among the aborigines of America. We may safely conclude that they are human, not Aryan, institutions. The time has come when it must be recognized among mankind everywhere that a tendency exists for similar conditions of life and similar mental qualities or habits to give birth to similar beliefs, usages, institutions, even where the races and the stages of civilization are unlike.

The question which naturally follows is: What have been the tendencies or causes which produced in so many different tribes the peculiar and, to a civilized modern eye, absurd and fantastic notions and customs in which totemism and exogamy are rooted? To this question, our author addresses himself in the Summary and Conclusion of the fourth volume, giving an interesting explanation and criticism of the many hypotheses advanced and finally propounding one of his own. It is too elaborate and involves too much knowledge of the facts belonging to the totem system, to be adequately summarized here, but the kernel of it is this: To the eye of savage man every object, be it an animal or a plant or perhaps even an inanimate thing, is the dwelling place of a spirit. The mother connects with her child the spirit of the object with which she happens to have been in close proximity at the moment when she first knows that she is likely to become a mother. Such an association of child with the spirit of an object has been noted in the case of some Australian tribes: Mr. Frazer thinks it may have been a very general phenomenon. His hypothesis, although far preferable to the trivial explanations suggested by H. Spencer and Sir John Lubbock, explanations which may safely be rejected, seems to rest at present on a basis of observation too narrow, too much confined to one Australian tribe group, to be convincing. Mr. Frazer justly observes that it is a mistake to speak of totemism as a religion, and to assume that it "normally and necessarily develops into a worship of anthropomorphic deities, with sacred plants and animals for their attributes." The totem, animal or plant, is not a higher power, but rather a brother or comrade of the members of the totem class. Accordingly, he observes, indulging in what may seem a somewhat fanciful vein of reflection, totemism is es-

sentially democratic. It is with magic, not with the worship, of a higher power, that we find it associated in savage communities. When kingship grows up, reverence for superior spiritual beings is its natural companion, and that awe grows into religion.

Of exogamy and its relations to totemism, to which Mr. Frazer thinks it later in time, we have left ourselves no space to speak. In handling it, Mr. Frazer pays a deserved tribute to that most distinguished of American ethnologists, L. H. Morgan, whose discovery of the classificatory systems of relationship among the Indians of the Pacific Slope opened up a theretofore unexplored field of inquiry, and cast a flood of new light upon many parts of the life of primitive man. The other scholar to whom like praise is due is the Scotch lawyer, John F. McLennan, of whom Mr. Frazer counts himself a disciple. Though he declines to adopt several of McLennan's views, he recognizes that remarkable man as the first person who saw and pointed out the importance both of totemic customs and of exogamy. How much the investigation started by these men has accomplished in enabling us to understand what sort of creatures our remote ancestors were, may be collected from the curious illustrations of savage usages heaped together in these volumes. Yet Mr. Frazer remarks, and probably with truth, that totemism itself need not have belonged to the earliest period in which our ancestors could be described as men. It may very well have grown up in a comparatively advanced period, when society, emerging from a semi-brutish state, had begun to give itself a sort of organization.

#### CURRENT FICTION.

*Demeter's Daughter.* By Eden Phillpotts. New York: John Lane Co.

We now know so well what we are to expect of this writer, that there should seem to be little room left for curious anticipation. To take up a new book by Mr. Phillpotts is not to experience the pleasant thrill with which more versatile performers are greeted. On the other hand, qualms are unnecessary. We know that nothing trivial or perfunctory is about to be offered to us, but a serious interpretation of human experience in a setting which permits the freest action of the interpreter's fancy. Why the imagination of Mr. Phillpotts is most at home among the plain folk at Dartmoor, so that they come to stand, for him, in the place of all humanity, nobody can say. But it is certain that his rare excursions from that field have resulted in inferior work.

"Demeter's Daughter" is a story most closely comparable to "The Whirlwind" and "The Thief of Virtue." It is not,

that is to say, what would be called a pretty story. So far as events can make her so, Alison Cleave is a sorry victim. In her natural fruitfulness, wholesomeness, industry, and patience she is the worthy daughter of the earth-mother. Yet there is little joy or even comfort for her in human experience. As a girl she has made a runaway match with a handsome but worthless young thatcher. He is by nature as idle and irresponsible as a faun, and in middle age takes advantage of a trifling accident to become the drone of the family. Alison has borne him several children, several of whom are now grown up. The story begins at a moment when a series of petty chances bring the family beyond the edge of poverty, to sheer pennilessness. The mother, whose courage has never failed, exerts herself to find work for them all, and to save the home. Success promises at first, but it is really the beginning of the end. The eldest son, who inherits his father's nature, turns out to be a knave. The second son, who resembles Alison, enters the army, and is shot in South Africa. Finally, the worthless husband strips her of the one cherished possession which remains to her—belief in his love and fidelity. A fitting end to the piteous tale is the virtual murder of poor Alison by her drunken husband. Nothing, you say, could be more dispiriting than this: why read of such things? It is Mr. Phillips's remarkable virtue to be able to make of such material not a mere sordid record of horrors, but an infinitely touching commentary on human nature and experience. The volume is fitly dedicated to Mr. Howells.

*Bawbee Jock.* By Amy McLaren. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The sweet-pretty story of the Victorian school is becoming a rare thing in the current market. Most of our lady romancers have become enlightened, let us not say to the point of cynicism, but in the direction of naturalism, at least. The popularity of a writer like Mrs. De la Pasture, however, proves that there is still an audience for the spinsters and the knitters in the sun, whenever they are sufficiently courageous to utter their tales of silly gooth. "Love in a cottage if necessary, but thank heaven it seldom is," might be taken as the motto of this classic type of fiction. "Bawbee Jock" plays up to the requirements in every way. Bawbee Jock is the hero, a highland chieftain of reduced means; and the heroine is Angela, a lovely English lass destined to become Mrs. Jock from the beginning of the world. Angela is the pretty and sweet and feminine and coquettish and rather silly young person who figured in the Annals of the sixties with a dove on one finger. Her hope all her life (extending to her twenty-first year) has been to

meet the knight of her dreams, but though she has had many, many suitors, her heart has never, etc. Jock is the fine, big, manly fellow who is sacrificing himself for an unworthy younger brother, and is on the verge of breaking the entail (what would British fiction be without the entail?) to satisfy that rapacious person's demands. But Angela comes upon the scene, and Jock (who has never noticed a woman before) succumbs at first sight. It only remains for them to go through the necessary pleasant manœuvres of an old-fashioned courtship; for the happy day to arrive at last, attended with a highland wedding and all the rustic honors; for a son and heir to be born—almost at the cost of frail Angela's life—making the removal of the entail impossible; and, finally, for Angela to turn out to be an heiress, capable of restoring the ancestral domain to its proper glories. What more can one ask?

*The Canon in Residence.* By Victor L. Whitechurch. New York: Baker & Taylor Co.

The plight of a prim, middle-aged clergyman travelling in Switzerland, whose clerical wardrobe is abstracted overnight from his hotel room and replaced by a sporting man's garish outfit, might have provided a light-minded fictionist with enough comic interest to furnish forth a good short story. Taken seriously, and at length, the far-reaching consequences of the practical joke amount to the dullest possible novel. Strong stress is laid on the moral benefit which Canon-elect Smith derived from wearing a "loud checked suit" during a four days' stay at St. Moritz—his wonderful gain in insight into the lay mind, his emancipation from the shackles of ecclesiastical convention, all dating from the Alpine holiday when he wore "mufti" and tobogganed hilariously with the "Cheshire cats." This growth in grace enables him, returned to England and entering upon his new duties at Frattenbury Cathedral, to combat the "deadening influence of the close, and its narrow-visioned clique"—personified in a hypocritical dean and three prying spinsters—together with Frattenbury's corrupt municipal policy—embodied in the fat person of its chief magistrate, a knighted brewer. His ensuing unpopularity with the powers of church and state is aggravated, and his reputation darkened by rumors of the attention attracted on the Riviera by a faultlessly attired, but ill-conducted "Rev. John Smith," until the charitable use of a banknote found in the pocket of the loud checked suit comfortably clears up the embroglio. The perpetrator of the trick, a shameless bank-robber who borrowed the canon's clothes in order to elude the police, is brought to justice—the canon seeing him off to prison like

a man and brother—and tardy peace descends upon the scandal-racked community of the cathedral close.

*Wells Brothers, the Young Cattle Kings.* By Andy Adams. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co.

The writer of this story began his writing a few years ago with "The Log of a Cowboy," a book which, since he himself had been a cowboy for a long time, had a certain stamp of freshness and force. His later books, as his consciousness of "literary" activity has steadily increased, have declined in naturalness. The case is something like that of A. H. Bullen, whose "Cruise of the Cachalot" gave him a public which has not been increased by his subsequent books. We suppose even Othello might have turned out a bore in print after he had exhausted the record of his personal adventures. It is to be feared that Mr. Adams has abandoned the range for authorship. From the internal evidence of this book it may be supposed that he deliberately set out to write a "boy's story." His style closely resembles that of Messrs. Castlemon, Alger & Co. His cowmen and boys speak a lingo compounded of plains slang and stilted bookish speech.

"What is the reason," inquired Joel, "that so many cattle are leaving your State for the upper country?"

"The reasons are numerous and valid," replied the elder cowman. "It's the natural outgrowth or expansion of the pastoral interests of our State."

"There is also an economic reason for the present exodus of cattle," added the young man. . . .

Perhaps we ought to go back to the Rollo books, and the conversation of the inspired Jonas, for our sources here. The Wells Brothers are left alone, at sixteen and fourteen, on a poor farm in good cattle country; and in three years become wealthy cattlemen.

#### A STUDY OF INCOMES.

*The Industrial System. An Inquiry into Earned and Unearned Income.* By J. A. Hobson. Imported by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York. New and revised edition. \$2 net.

Under this title, Mr. Hobson virtually reprints a number of chapters whose essential contents have appeared in his "Evolution of Modern Capitalism," his "Distribution of Wealth," and in his other economic writings. Thus chapters I, II, VIII, IX, XI, XII, XV, and XIX may be eliminated from special consideration in this review, and attention may be concentrated on the eleven remaining chapters which have to do with earned and unearned income.

The first criticism in order is grammatical in character. Mr. Hobson apparently does not appreciate that "earn-

ed" and "unearned" are *past participles*. The hod-carrier who sings:

Of've worked eight hours this day,  
An' ol' think ol've earned me pay,

had an appreciation of the connotation of "earned" of which the British economist is quite innocent. It may, of course, be proper to distinguish incomes whose use will be socially beneficial from those incomes whose use will be socially detrimental. But the contrast should be pointed by employing terms whose connotation and reference are future, not past.

Mr. Hobson has founded his conception of the socially desirable character of certain forms of industrial remuneration upon an admittedly biological parallel, that is to say, upon the laws of maintenance and growth of a "biological organism which provides itself with food to repair its waste of tissue and of energy, and to provide for its growth" (p. 76). This biological prepossession furnishes the key to his novel economic terminology. "Costs are that part of the product . . . necessary . . . to maintain the current output of productive energy in a factor of production." The residue of the product is surplus. But the surplus is subdivisible (on much the same principle as the Rooseveltian division of trusts into the "good" and the "bad") into "productive surplus" and "unproductive surplus." The productive surplus goes to create an "increase of industrial structure or power." Thus, savings that augment necessary plant and appliances of production, or profit that stimulates the entrepreneur to renewed putting forth of ability, or wage which releases latent labor power—all these are parts of the productive surplus. The "unproductive surplus" covers payments in the "form of rent, excessive interest, profit, or salary" in excess of what is needed to procure "an increase of industrial structure or power." The unproductive surplus is identified with unearned income, and constitutes the "direful spring" of the "woes unnumbered" of industrial society. "If there were no surplus there would be industrial peace, for necessary payments would absorb the product" (p. 79). One is entitled to ask, *en passant*, why the biological oracles should furnish so admirable an analogy for classifying laudable incomes ("costs" and "productive surpluses"), and should be wholly dumb when asked to furnish a congener to the malevolent "unproductive surplus." Possibly parasitism is the analogy; but, if so, the relative size of parasite and host seems quite different in biology and economics.

The "unproductive surplus," *alias* unearned income, is the target of Mr. Hobson's shafts. It accounts for unemployment and industrial crises (p. 294); its existence justifies the labor movement (p. 211); it is the one indispensable source from which to obtain tax-

revenue, and so "of supreme significance in public finance" (p. 227). The substantiation of these awkward propositions leaves much to be desired.

The unproductive surplus, or unearned income, is indicted as responsible for cyclical unemployment and crises, because such income is either spent for goods whimsically and temporarily demanded, or because unearned income is "saved" to excess. The old argument is revamped that excessive saving leads to the creation of more productive appliances than are requisite; that when the productive appliances create consumption goods, the lack of demand for the consumption goods leaves "the machinery of industry . . . congested and clogged" (p. 52). It is not explained why the excessive appliances for production that result from the excessive saving of unearned income must create consumption goods exclusively. The excessive saving that takes the form of a machine shop will turn out machinery; and if the excessive saving issues in an augmented demand for productive appliances rather than for consumption goods, it is difficult to see why the machinery of industry must become "congested and clogged." It is doubtless perfectly possible for a community to make a mistaken distribution of its productive power; and to devote a disproportionate amount of this power for the time being either to the creation of commodities for immediate consumption or to the creation of appliances for future production. But that "unearned incomes" (in Mr. Hobson's view) are exclusively or mainly culpable in promoting one extreme or the other does not seem to follow. If the recipient of unearned income spends it now on champagne and now on motor cars, Mr. Hobson charges him with "irregular spending" (p. 307), and impairing "the regularity of employment" (p. 307). If the culprit does not spend but saves, he is charged with congesting and clogging the machinery of industry.

As regards the labor movement, Mr. Hobson finds its justification, not in collective bargaining which goes only a short way apparently, inasmuch as "the modern organization of capital . . . is able to offer successful resistance in most industrial fields to the more important demands of labor" (p. 215); but in its ability to *raids* the surplus (unearned income) concealed in profits:

If . . . no surplus exists which labor can secure by organization, trade unionism inflicts a two-fold damage on the unorganized workers, keeping down their wages and raising the prices they must pay for goods produced under trade union conditions (p. 207).

If this be true, it is incumbent on Mr. Hobson to prove that, monopoly apart, profit conceals such surpluses. The view

commonly entertained by those who obtain profits is that their remuneration is a closely-clipped competitive wage.

As regards taxation, Mr. Hobson seems to us grossly to exaggerate the magnitude of what he calls surplus or unearned income. The practical expedients he urges, such as the abandonment of "collection at the source" and the substitution of a "personal collection enforced by compulsory declaration of all incomes" (p. 241), under adequate penalties for failure to comply, quite remove him from the category of practical financiers.

The merits of the volume—and they are not few nor hard to find—are his incisive criticism of the theory of distribution, through the specific productivity of separate productive agents (p. 106 sq), and his analysis of markets, of price-movements and of industrial morphology generally; upon his main contention, the discrimination of earned from unearned incomes, and upon his financial projects based thereupon, the verdict must be emphatically adverse.

*The Patient Observer.* By Simeon Strunsky. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.20 net.

Humor and satire seeking their prey in the American jungle are wont to stalk in the skin of a caustic Irishman, an eccentric German, or a naïve Oriental—as if we could learn to see ourselves as others see us only through alien eyes. The ruse is hardly complimentary to American insight and candor. The most salutary, civilized, and humane ridicule is the direct self-ridicule that rises spontaneously from self-knowledge—the internal dawning and tolerant acknowledgment of the fact that one has been, like the queen of faery, "enamoured of an ass." For this reason we welcome Mr. Strunsky's *Patient Observer*—a plain, average man of the city with a centre of good sense, who, exploiting neither an eccentric dialect nor personality, seeks the comic "thing-in-itself," and makes his satirical inductions with the touches of nature collected between his front door and his desk. The *Patient Observer* is a newspaper man, which means that he is the mouthpiece of *Everyman* and the medium for the eternal follies in their latest and most pliant disguises. Through him the newest quackery of the physician speaks, the fanaticism of the athlete, the unspirituality of the clergyman, the sensationalism of the journalist, the logic of the suffragette, the philosophy of the interpretative dancer, the cheerful mendacity of the commuter, and the prestidigitation of the politician. But he, disillusioned purveyor of illusions and passionless vehicle of passions, looks on from his centre of common sense with quiet, satirical, slightly cynical eye,

marking for his own the mirth-provoking absurdities of the pageant.

He is perhaps at his best when in the spirit of the old-fashioned "character" writers he portrays with a touch of both irony and pathos one of the types created by the pressure of city life and the exigencies of modern civilization. Such is Wallabout Smith—a respectable but not affluent New York business man who performs with a kind of humdrum fortitude, a wearied but unflagging patience, his duties to his employer and to his large family. Smith supports in his suburban home a wife who aspires to culture; and he is the father of four sons and two daughters—for which cause a former President of the United States has declared that he has "done more for his country than all the laws enacted by the Legislatures of all the New England and Middle Atlantic States since the Spanish-American war."

The ex-Presidential limelight has made Wallabout Smith an "eminent American." "How well-known men do their work," says the ironical *Observer*, "has always interested the public." Here is a sample of the stuff of Smith's life:

It was his habit to spend a good part of his day in New York city. He would rise about six o'clock every week day in the year, and, snatching a hasty breakfast, would make his way to the railroad station, pausing now and then in perplexity as he tried to recall what it was his wife had asked him to bring home from town. Sometimes he would catch his train and sometimes he would not. Arrived at his office he would remove his coat, and, putting on a black alpaca jacket, to which he was greatly attached, he would proceed to glance over, check, and transcribe the contents of a large number of bills and vouchers representing the daily transactions of a very prosperous commercial enterprise in which he had no proprietary interest. The day's work would be pleasantly broken up by frequent inquiries from the general manager's office. Every now and then a fellow-worker would take a moment from his duties to ask Wallabout Smith how his lawn was getting on. Sometimes he would be summoned to the telephone, only to learn that Central had called the wrong number. Lunch was a matter of a few minutes. At 5:30 every afternoon Wallabout Smith exchanged his alpaca jacket for his street coat, with a fine sense of weariness, and the secure conviction that the next morning would find the same task waiting for him on his table. "I have no hesitation in stating," Smith would frequently say, "that some of the busiest hours of my life have been spent at my office desk."

The merit of Mr. Strunsky's sketches is somewhat unequal, occasionally the brush is roughly applied, the humor desultuous. But a considerable body of work remains which is of more than passing interest—work informed with the fresh observation of the journalist and subtilized by the finer sympathy and humor of the elder essayists. We

commend to the gentle reader "On Living in Brooklyn," "The Cadence of the Crowd," "When a Man Marries," "An Eminent American," and "Behind the Times."

## Notes

A restatement by the late William James of his position in philosophy, being uncompleted documents, will be issued this spring by Longmans, Green & Co.

Houghton Mifflin will issue May 6: "Harriet Beecher Stowe: The Story of Her Life," by Charles E. and Lyman Beecher Stowe; "Orphans," by Helen Dawes Brown; "Religion and Immortality," by G. Lowes Dickinson; "Complete Poetical Works of Edgar Allan Poe," an entirely new text, edited by J. H. Whitty; "A Study of Versification" by Brander Matthews, and "Teaching Poetry in the Grades," by Agnes G. Smith and Margaret W. Haliburton.

Mrs. Carter Harrison is publishing through McClurg a new book of fairy tales. The same firm hopes to have ready in the autumn "Briefs for High-School Debates," by E. C. Robbins.

Paul Elder & Co. have nearly ready "Comfort Found in Good Old Books," by George Hamlin Fitch.

The Robert Clarke Co. of Cincinnati promises for early May "The New Avatar and the Destiny of the Soul, the Findings of Natural Science Reduced to Practical Studies in Psychology," by Dr. J. D. Buck.

Selections from the works of H. G. Wells have been made by Mrs. Marriott Watson for the purpose of a calendar, after the manner of the G. B. S. Calendar. The publisher will be Frank Palmer.

Two unfinished manuscripts by Thackeray have been discovered by his daughter, Lady Ritchie. One, "The Knights of Borsellen," is part of a mediæval romance, having the author's own drawings; the other, "Cockney Travels," is an account of tours by coach and rail in the west of England about 1842. The new material will appear in *Harper's Magazine* and in the *Cornhill Magazine* before it is included in the Centenary Biographical edition of Thackeray's works.

Publications of the Selden Society for 1910, which are about to be issued, will bear the title, "Select Cases in the Star Chamber: Vol. II. A. D. 1509-'44," edited by J. S. Leadam, with Introduction.

The Home University Library of Modern Knowledge, a series of new books, by eminent authorities, at a moderate price (75 cents a volume), and specially written for the layman and student, will be inaugurated in May, by the publication, over the imprint of Henry Holt & Co., of the first ten volumes. The editors are Prof. Gilbert Murray of Oxford University, Herbert Fisher of Oxford University, Prof. J. Arthur Thomson of the University of Aberdeen, and Prof. William T. Brewster of Columbia University.

Among the first ten volumes are found: "The French Revolution," by Hilaire Belloc; "The Irish Nationality," by Mrs. J. R. Green; "A History of War and Peace," by G. H. Perris; "The Socialist Movement," by J. Ramsay MacDonald, chairman of the

British Labor party; "The Stock Exchange," by F. W. Hirst; "Modern Geography," by Dr. Marion Newbegin; "Polar Exploration," by Dr. W. S. Bruce, and "Parliament," by Sir Courtenay P. Ilbert.

Charles Malcolm Flandrau's volume of essays entitled "Prejudices," will be brought out in May by the Appletons.

The "Jeune Roman" prize of 3,000 francs was won this year by Jean Balde, author of "Les Ebauches."

The Dickens Committee of England, including Lord Alverstone, Andrew Lang, and other well-known names, has sent out an appeal to lovers of Dickens in America to contribute to the support of his descendants, many of whom are in straitened circumstances. The committee adds:

It is proposed to collect this fund through the sale of a centenary book-plate known as the Dickens stamp, which is to be obtained at the price of two cents, from all booksellers and stationers who are interested in this scheme. These stamps are to be affixed to every copy of Dickens. This movement has already received the support, in this country, of all classes from his Majesty the King to those in lowly walks of life.

"Nowhere do nature and the savage combine to make exploration work so difficult and so risky as in the remote corners of the South American continent," says Major P. H. Fawcett in an account (in the *Geographical Journal* for April), of his last year's experiences while delimiting the new frontier between Bolivia and Peru. He prophesies a boom on the rich gold belts of southern Peru and all Bolivia east of the Andes when the Panama Canal is opened, adding that "in southern Bolivia exists also what is probably the richest tin region in the world, the vast bulk of it unworked yet for the want of capital and difficulty of transport." Dr. Wilfred T. Grenfell describes the natural features of Labrador, where he has been the superintendent of the medical mission since 1892. He dwells upon the "vegetation of our enormous wild garden," the berry crops of which he believes cannot be excelled. He also hopes that through the reindeer, 3,000,000 of which could easily be supported there, it will be a "meat-supply to the world." In a fully illustrated report of the "Michael Sars" north Atlantic deep-sea expedition, 1910, Dr. Johan Hjort, its leader, says that by far the greatest animal life was found at a depth of 300 metres and virtually nothing at the lowest depths.

As a check against various errors and "corrections" that had crept into the text of the King James Bible, the University of Oxford, in 1833, published an accurate line for line reprint of the *editio princeps* of 1611. This reprint has now been reproduced by a mechanical process and published in a convenient volume at the University Press. The type in this reproduction is small and has a little of that blurred look which commonly goes with the mechanical process, but for reference and comparison, not for continuous reading, the book was intended, and for this purpose its absolute accuracy is all sufficient. In a Bibliographical Introduction of some length Alfred W. Pollard gives a remarkably clear history of the various translations from the Wyclif (or more properly Wyclifite, for the work was only done under Wyclif's direction) to the authorized version of King James.

In another volume, "Records of the English Bible," Mr. Pollard prints this same Introduction and then gives a literal reprint of the documents relating to the translation and publication of the various English Bibles between 1525 and 1611. When an old translation of a Latin document exists, as in the case of those preserved by Fox, he gives this together with the Latin; when no such translation exists, he adds his own version. On the whole, the perusal of these letters, promulgations, prefaces, reports, etc., in this consecutive and convenient form will add surprisingly to the vividness of a drama even for those who thought themselves already well versed in Biblical history. Some of the documents, moreover, were by no means easy of access until printed in this collection. Mr. Pollard observes that the record as a whole brings out the strong element of politics that influenced those who were trying to introduce and those who were trying to suppress the English versions. This appears to us true in a way; but it was politics of a peculiar sort. Those in high authority seem to us to have been in general much perplexed by the whole movement. The radical party were undoubtedly led on by their dislike of self-continuing institutions, and to this end were ready to do a certain violence to the language; Tyndal, for instance, dropped the word *priest* commonly and etymologically used for *presbyter*, and substituted the word *elder*, dropping *church* also and substituting *congregation*. One of the amusing documents in the present collection is a letter (Brit. Mus. Cotton MS.) from Robert Ridley, chaplain to the Bishop of London, to Henry Gold, chaplain to the Archbishop of Canterbury, in which the pious horror of the writer vents itself in incoherent English and Latin. He begins:

Maister gold I harty commaunde me vnto you, as concerning this common & vulgare translation of the new testament in to englishe, doon by M. William hichyns, other wais called M. W. tyndale & frear William roay, manifest lutheranes heretikes & apostates.

Chaplain Ridley informs Chaplain Gold that Tyndale's notes and introduction are "al to gither most posoned & abominable hereses that can be thowt." He continues:

By this translation shal we losse al thies christian wordes, penance, charite, confession, grace, prest, chirche, which he alway calleth a congregation, quasi turcharum et brutorum nulla esset congregatio nisi velit illorum etiam esse ecclesiam.

The drama closes with the statement of the translators of the authorized version:

Lastly, we haue on the one side auoide the scrupulosity of the Puritanes, who leauo the olde Ecclesiasticall words, and betake them to other, as when they put *washing* for *Baptisme*, and *Congregation* in stead of *Church*: as also on the other side we haue shunned the obseruitie of the Papists, in their *Azimes Tunike*.

A valid objection against several of the modern parallel Bibles and compilations of the Old Testament literature, that they extend over several bulky and expensive volumes, does not obtain in the case of "The Old Testament Narrative," by Alfred Dwight Sheffield (Houghton Mifflin). By omitting all duplicate passages, as well as the prophecies, laws, and Psalms which contain no historical narratives, Mr. Sheffield has brought the Old Testament history within the compass of a single convenient volume. The material is separated into chapters and sections, with appropriate head-

ings, and arranged in the order of events, without regard to the position of the various passages in the Bible as usually printed. Glosses are cut out, and where several narratives of the same event occur, the passage most important for the understanding of the history is chosen. The result is that one follows easily the Hebrew historical narratives from the early stories to the restoration of the temple services under the Maccabees. The King James version is employed, with necessary corrections. The notes are brief and are confined to explanations essential to the understanding of the text. In these explanations and in the arrangement of the material the results of historical criticism are assumed. The attempts to popularize knowledge of the Bible by novel ways of printing it are numerous, and Mr. Sheffield's is one of the most convenient, but none of these devices will compensate for a parent who takes down the old King James version for a chapter every morning.

"The Ideal Italian Tour" (Houghton Mifflin), by Henry James Forman, is an illustrated pocket volume bound in red leather, and is intended as a supplementary guide to persons doing their Italy with dispatch. Mr. Forman has brought together about the amount of history and criticism that a hasty, yet not careless, tourist, can absorb *en route*. The idea of a pocket manual of Italian history, legend, and art is an excellent one, and in the main the attempt is successful, though the traveller who prefers Orvieto or Perugia to Siena as halting places, is left without counsel. The proofreading of Italian names is bad, and there are many inadvertences, not to mention a disposition to credit the tales of local ciceroni. No visitor, unless the situation has recently changed, can see the Cavallini in Sta. Cecilia in Trastevere without a ministerial permit, nor is Cavallini "Giotto's pupil." It would be hard to discover anything of Giotto in the Pisan Campo Santo. Correggio's Danae should certainly be seen even by the hurried visitor to the Casino Borghese. In general, the book needs considerable revision in the direction of sobriety and accuracy.

The fifth volume of the collected works of Ambrose Bierce ("Black Beetles in Amber," Neale), contains three hundred and eighty pages of criticism in more or less successful verse of persons, chiefly unknown to fame, who seem to have diversified the history of the Pacific Coast. Mr. Bierce argues soundly in the preface that dead beetles may be as obscure as they will, it is the amber that insures their immortality, and rests his defence of the existence of this book on the practice of Aristophanes, Horace, Dryden, and others. While granting Mr. Bierce's law, the impartial reader will be obliged to decide that an unfortunate fundamental difference between the present case and those cited makes them irrelevant here.

The first impression made by Count Fritz Hochberg's Journal, "An Eastern Voyage" (Dutton), is one of amazement that it should have been published. The daily incidents recounted and the comments on them are often excessively trivial and sometimes vulgar. Nor has it the excuse of being a description of little-known regions, for he rarely leaves the well-beaten track of the globe-trotter. But the persevering

reader will find so much that is really entertaining in the outspoken record that he will simply regret that it had not been carefully edited before publication. The personality of the count is strongly brought out, and is generally agreeable and amusing. The journal begins with his departure from Southampton in October, 1907, and ends at Japan a year later, the other countries visited being Australia, New Zealand, Burmah, and India. A day was spent at Manila, during which he reached the conviction, from the "brooding, defiant, dissatisfied, yet half-melancholy atmosphere," that the people, "should the occasion present itself," will "shake themselves free of the unwanted, thoroughly-hated American government." It is evident that he is in sympathy with them, for, in another place, he gives it as his opinion that America is not "a country for civilized Christians to travel in" (Vol. I, p. 175). And, again, "No American can ever be a lady, even if she gives herself the airs of one" (Vol. II, p. 275). The most enjoyable parts of the journal are those in which he describes his wanderings amid the mountains of Kashmir and his experiences in Japan. He is most enthusiastic in his admiration of the Japanese, predicting a great future for them. The illustrations consist of reproductions in color of twenty-five of his sketches and forty-eight photographs, some of which are beautiful.

The Bostonian Society has just issued Volume VII of its publications, in which subjects of more than mere local concern are treated. An interesting episode in the history of Maine, for instance, is narrated, in the "Dutch Pirates in Boston," by the Rev. G. M. Dodge. In 1674, a Dutch frigate captured Castine and the forts and trading posts as far as the St. John's River, and the captain "proclaimed the dominion of the Prince of Orange" over this part of Acadie. On learning of this some Boston men sailed in two vessels, flying the Dutch flag, for New Holland, as it was now called, and captured four English vessels which, it was contended, were engaged in unlawful trade. Complaint was made and an expedition was sent from Boston which took the offenders prisoners, several of whom were found guilty of piracy and condemned to death. In telling the "Story of Boston Light," which is "one of the oldest of the famous lighthouses of the modern world," Fitz-Henry Smith, Jr., says that an attempt to erect lightning conductors about 1755 "was opposed by several of the godly men of those days, who thought it vanity and irreligion for the arm of flesh to presume to avert the stroke of heaven." The opposition was overcome by the lightning itself, according to an article in the *Massachusetts Magazine* for February, 1789, for "necessity prevailed over the consciences of our faithful fathers, and the invention of Franklin was employed."

The recently established Mohammedanisches Seminar in Potsdam, far from being an institution exclusively devoted to the preparation of young men for mission work in Moslem countries, has higher aims and intends to apply scientific methods to the study of modern Mohammedan life and thought. Among the courses announced for the coming summer semester are some on the interpretation of the Koran; on Sufistic philosophy; on the organization and

the practices of the order of the Dervishes; on the life of Mohammed and the history of Arabic poetry, to which is added practical instruction in the Persian, the Turkish, and the Armenian languages.

The special committee appointed by the Russian Academy of Sciences in St. Petersburg to investigate the advisability of introducing the Gregorian calendar in Russia has reported that the adoption of the new style would be out of the question for that country, but that a simplified calendar is a desideratum. The Russian government will propose to the other Powers an international convention for the attainment of this latter purpose.

Recent statistics report at the sixteen universities of France a total enrolment of 40,001 matriculated students. The law faculties have 16,915, the medical 9,721, the philological 6,363, and the natural science departments 6,287. During the same semester, Germany had 54,845 regular university students; but in this case philosophy, physiology, and history headed the list, with 15,475 students. Germany had about the same number of medical students as France, namely, 9,462; but, as compared with the 16,915 law students in France, Germany had only 11,323, and the attendance in this department is rapidly decreasing at German universities.

The Rev. Dr. Peter Henry Streenstra, for forty years professor of Old Testament literature and interpretation at the Episcopal Theological School, Cambridge, Mass., died suddenly at his country home in Robbinston, Me., just a week ago. He was born in Holland in 1833, but came to this country as a boy. He was well-known for his book, "The Being of God as Unity and Trinity."

## Science

*Dry Farming.* By John A. Widtsoe. New York: The Macmillan Co. \$1.50 net.

It is a far cry from Jethro Tull's "Horse-Hoing Husbandry" to the latest volume in the Rural Science Series. The reviewer's copy of the former is of 1733, and yet modern dry-farmers trace the beginning of their science to Tull and his machines. So much of the Englishman's science as was taken to our West, to Australia, and to South Africa caused the development in different localities of very similar systems, which have a common basis in theory and fact. Recent practice, which is becoming more and more uniform all over the world, is now summarized at considerable length in "Dry Farming."

We are so accustomed to age-long conditions that we do not realize that man maintains himself on less than half of the earth's surface. Statistics show that 65 per cent. of the globe receives so little rain that it will not bear crops by ordinary methods of tillage, and that but 10 per cent. can be reclaimed by irrigation. Nevertheless, modern dry-farming is able to reclaim 30 per cent. of the whole, with every chance that newer methods will constantly widen

the area of its effectiveness. Many of these arid areas are far from civilized influences; but when we consider that in the United States six hundred million acres, and in Australia a billion and a quarter acres, have the possibility of producing thirty bushels of wheat per acre every other year, we may realize that the race is as yet far from the end of its resources. This production would result from a rainfall of between ten and thirty inches yearly (our Eastern States average from forty to fifty inches), and would give certain success from a rainfall of above fifteen inches, provided soil and methods were right.

As to soil, arid regions present peculiar conditions. Whereas in humid districts we are used to a distinct difference between loam and subsoil, the latter coarse, infertile, and communicating at a slight depth with standing water, the soil of arid regions seldom shows a difference in texture or fertility to a depth of ten feet, and often much more. Where hard-pans appear they can usually be broken up by tillage, and the only soil to be avoided is one in which streaks or beds of gravel break the capillary system of soil particles by which water for the use of plants may be drawn from the lower depths. The customary arid soil presents the advantage that its water cannot drain away, nor can it leach out the elements of fertility in the soil; by proper tillage these can be conserved for plant use. Modern experiments, both theoretical and practical, have proved that the system of sub-soil packing, of which we heard so much a few years ago, is not necessary; a good arid soil takes care of its own water, mechanically storing it, to yield it again as the surface dries.

It is the task of the cultivator to prevent surface drying, after the water has been properly stored. A year of fallow after the land is broken—clean fallow, for no weeds must grow—is helped by fall ploughing to catch the winter snow or rain. The cultivator then keeps the surface loose. A ten-inch mulch, or covering of loose dry earth, will virtually stop evaporation; a four-inch mulch will save nearly three-quarters of the rainfall. On all exposed soil surfaces this mulch must be constantly maintained. Tull would stand amazed at the modern tools that have supplanted his first crude apparatus for this purpose. Besides the mulch, the shade of growing plants will help to stop evaporation. Strangely enough, the one inevitable cause of moisture loss, transpiration through the leaves of plants, may also be in part regulated. The possibility of this is shown by the fact that certain plants and plant varieties transpire less than others. Eventually, therefore, we may expect to see plants bred with this advantage in mind. A second means of checking transpiration is indicated in the discovery that plants transpire least

from soils that are richest in plant food.

This discovery may encourage the Easterner in his use of chemical fertilizers, but it has no such effect on the dry-farmer. He points to the facts that his depth of soil gives him at least three farms in one, that arid soils are rich in nitrogen and are able to replenish their supply largely by bacterial means, and that in a series of years (above half a century), dry-farms have actually increased in fertility, as shown by surface tests. No; at most the dry-farmer ploughs under his stubble, and uses his small quantity of manure. His real dependence is on cultivation, not only to conserve water, but also to set free the fertility of the soil. His fallow year, which he has proved to be necessary at least once in four, often once in two years, is also a large factor in his attaining both these objects. Against the "year of drought" (a spectre in which Mr. Widtsoe does not believe), and against failure in fertility, fallowing and cultivation are the main reliances.

All this is set forth in Mr. Widtsoe's book with admirable clearness, and with abundant detail. The book is well made, well illustrated, well indexed; it makes no pretence to finality, but plainly looks to the future to settle many problems. Mr. Widtsoe writes of his subject with an enthusiasm which helps him greatly. Indeed, his chapter on dry-farming soil is almost enough to make the Easterner pull up stakes and move West. But there are other sides to the matter. Does not the increase of fertility in the topsoil mean a robbing of the lower layers? Mr. Widtsoe virtually admits as much, and indicates that the time will come when the question of fertilizing must be met. Again, and, perhaps, most important of all, there is the problem of life on the dry-farm. Conditions in the drier districts, where water must be hauled for miles, "preclude the existence of the house and barn on or even near the farm." No wonder, then, that it has come to be recognized that only certain men—the pioneers—are fitted to be dry-farmers. Those men who, we are told, prefer the irrigated farm—or the East—are they who must, for happiness, have near them trees, grass, a garden, which mean the happiness also of wife and children. It seems unlikely that the centre of population will move to the arid lands until the apparently small, but really vital question of comfort on the dry-farm is satisfactorily solved.

The Home University Library of Modern Knowledge (Holt) will include "The Evolution of Plants," by Dr. D. H. Scott.

Twenty years ago Dr. T. Mitchell Prudden wrote two excellent little books for the enlightenment of the public concerning the part played by microorganisms in the causation of disease. He has now prepared a second edition of both books, which G. P. Putnam's Sons publish. It may be

doubted if better books of this kind exist in English, or, indeed, in any language; they deserve to be widely known and read. The smaller one, treating of "Dust and Its Dangers," deals with a somewhat limited field, but has many generalizations concerning the larger aspects of bacteriology. This book is little changed in size, but is thoroughly modernized and illustrated without any loss of the crispness which was a charm of the first edition. Dr. Prudden's remarks on the "American Expectoratory Prerogative," or what he perhaps might equally well call the palladium of American liberty, are unfortunately scarcely less just to-day than they were in the first edition twenty years ago. The other book, which tells the "Story of the Bacteria and Their Relation to Health and Disease," has grown considerably, although it is still quite moderate in size and cheap in price. The earlier edition had but one illustration, which, however, glowed with color; the new edition has thirteen plates and fifteen figures in the text. Briefly, the book may be said to be a condensed treatise on general bacteriology, touching on many things, but it is a condensation made by a master hand, and such as only the masters make. Everywhere the reader meets evidence of thorough revision. Dr. Prudden brings out clearly and strongly the dangers of sewage and the risk in the using of ice, and urges vigorous measures against flies, for he points out that the fly may well declare that it thrives on the carelessness of man. He was formerly rather non-committal in the matter of bovine tuberculosis, but is now much more positive as to the danger of cow's milk, and also as to the latency of tuberculosis in man. The book is full of indications of Dr. Prudden's carefulness in generalization. His admirable discretion and level-headedness are perhaps nowhere more manifest than in his discussion of the part played by the leucocytes. This may be shown in a brief extract (p. 152), in which the modernization of the new edition is also apparent:

We please our fancy sometimes, by making heroes of the leucocytes, dashing the intruders in their hereditary bailiwicks, regardless of the risks which they so hardly incur. Let us not indulge in too much of this, lest haply we, too, be found among the nature fakers. For, in fact, they are impotent pieces of the game played by physical and chemical forces, and they have to set about the battle willy-nilly, just as much as the magnetized needle has to swing to the north, quite without concern whether the ship does or does not go upon the rocks.

The death is reported from London of Catherine Cooper Hopley, an authority on ophidiens. While in this country, at the time of the civil war, collecting materials for a book on American birds, she was arrested on suspicion of being a British spy and was imprisoned for a few months.

Dr. Herman Knapp, who had an international reputation as an eye and ear surgeon, died on Sunday, in his eightieth year, at Mamaroneck, N. Y. He was born at Dauborn, Prussia, in 1832, and graduated from Giessen University in 1854; he was professor of ophthalmology at the University of Heidelberg from 1864 to 1868, and since 1888 had held the same position at the College of Physicians and Surgeons in this city, of which he became emeritus professor in 1902. He founded, in 1869, a special journal called the *Archives of Oph-*

*thalmology and Otology*, which is published in both English and German. He was the author of "Intra-Ocular Tumors" and of many papers on eye and ear surgery.

## Drama

The Home University Library of Modern Knowledge (Holt) will include "Shakespeare," by John Masefield.

The various papers in the "Dramatic Values" of C. E. Montague (Macmillan) consist mainly of theatrical reviews—duly revised and polished—which were printed originally in the Manchester *Guardian* or elsewhere, and are well worthy of the more durable and convenient form in which they now appear. It is seldom that journalistic essays reveal so much ripe and varied scholarship, such keen perception, and such facility of vivacious and pertinent expression. Mr. Montague is an ardent champion of the newer drama, and not every reader will agree with all his opinions; but he writes with so firm a grasp of his subject and such sincerity of conviction that he holds attention and commands respect. All his chapters furnish attractive reading, and no lover of the theatre can afford to neglect them, but three or four of them are especially notable. Among these is an eloquent and discerning appreciation of the Irish plays of J. M. Synge, in which their uncommon literary charm and constructive skill are most sympathetically treated. His criticism is delicate and just, although his enthusiasm for the new Irish drama occasionally leads him to confuse the fancy of the poet with the realism of the dramatist. There are passages in Synge which never fell from uncultivated lips, Irish or other. Excellent, too, is the paper on Constant Coquelin, in which the secret of that actor's power is rightly ascribed to his zeal for his art, his minute study of detail, and his perfect control of his extraordinary facial and vocal resources. He was, in a word, the finished artist, not an inspired actor. Elsewhere Mr. Montague analyzes acutely the genius of Molière, and points out the value of cherished tradition as illustrated in the best classical performances of the French stage. If he were equally familiar with the contemporary American theatre, he might have written an instructive supplementary essay upon the destruction of all histrionic tradition by the methods of modern commercial management. Especially interesting and shrewdly observant is the account of the work of Mr. Foel in his Elizabethan revivals, in which antiquarian research was reinforced by artistic intelligence. He has high praise, also, for the work done at Stratford-upon-Avon by F. R. Benson. In dealing with the works of Ibsen, Bernard Shaw, and Oscar Wilde, his admiration is tempered by more critical acumen than is commonly displayed by the champions of the modern school. He lays about him very vigorously in assailing the supporters of the wholesome drama, but is more entertaining than ingenuous. The windmills which he demolishes are flimsy structures of his own creation. But the volume, as a whole, is an exceedingly good one of its kind.

M. Gémier, the popular French actor-

manager, will soon give two novel dramatic performances in Paris. In a large trans- portable theatre, to be erected in front of the Hôtel des Invalides, he will give a performance of one of the plays of the Théâtre Antoine before President Fallières, members of the diplomatic corps, and the leading critics. On the next day he will give a similar performance for members of the two chambers. M. Gémier will then dismantle his theatre and move to Compiègne, to give performances there, this being the first in a chain of towns in northern France which he intends to visit for varying periods in the course of the summer. M. Gémier will employ no fewer than one hundred persons and two distinct specially constructed and spacious theatre-halls. The building is to be duplicated in order that one may be fitted up in the next town while performances are being given elsewhere. The whole company is to live in caravans and to travel by road in motor-drawn wagons. The performances will, in most respects, be faithful replicas, with most of the best-known actors, of the latest successful plays at the Théâtre Antoine.

From Canada comes the report of the brilliant success made by Edward Terry throughout his recent tour, now almost at an end. Besides winning fresh laurels as an actor, Mr. Terry has addressed large meetings in the principal towns of the Dominion, his object being to establish there branches of the Actors' Church Union. He has also lectured on Charles Dickens. Mr. Terry hopes to be back in England in good time to take part both in the command performance of "Money" at Drury Lane and in the gala performance at His Majesty's.

"The Little Dream," which has just been produced by Miss Horniman's company in Manchester, exhibits John Galsworthy in a new light. It is a symbolical, fairy-like piece in six scenes, showing the visions of Seelchen, an Alpine maiden, as she sleeps in a mountain hut, after having been kissed by the great London climber, Lamond—who has scaled the Cowhorn and the Winehorn, and is setting out for the Great Horn—and by her rustic lover, Felsman. As she dreams the three mountains take on a human aspect. The Cowhorn calls to her to stay among her mountains and valleys. The Winehorn, which reflects Lamond as the Cowhorn had Felsman, tells her of variety and new loves and riches and pleasure. It is with the Winehorn she will go. Then the Great Horn speaks, telling her she will come to him, to the unknown and mystery at last. The dream changes to an inn in Italy. The Winehorn comes down as a woman robed in red with wine leaves in her hair, and before Seelchen children, youths, and girls, rich and poor, dance. Out of the inn comes Lamond and tempts Seelchen to love him. Together they go in and the scene darkens. When light comes again Seelchen is standing upon the doorway with the cry, "My heart is old," on her lips. She hears the goatherd's pipe and the Cowhorn calling to her, and she goes. On the edge of the world the flowers dance and the goatherd plays his pipe. The goats leap and dance with joy. Felsman comes and presses her to go with him, but she finds the sun scorching and the air cold and his embraces rough. So, forsaking

both, she turns to the Great Horn, to mystery at last. The final scene is the hut. The climbers go out to their adventures, and the girl wakes to the dawn. "The allegory," says a prominent critic, "is not difficult, and is with the ethical realities. Its content is to be filled by every man as he can, and the writing, with some exceptions, is singularly sustained and beautiful with a simple dignity."

The Shakespeare Festival at Stratford-upon-Avon opened with an afternoon performance of "Much Ado About Nothing." F. R. Benson was the Benedick, and Violet Vanbrugh the Beatrice. In the evening the Benson company gave a spirited performance of "The Merry Wives," but the Falstaff of H. O. Nicholson seems to have been somewhat lacking in the element of joviality.

Apparently, "A Butterfly on the Wheel," recently produced in the Globe Theatre, London, suffers from the defect of its virtues. It is written by E. G. Hemmerde, a well-known king's counsel, and Francis Neilson, and is exceedingly veracious in all its legal details, but undramatic. The story of a silly wife who compromises herself is feeble in itself, and is told diffusely, with endless reiterations. As for the great scene—the trial in the divorce court—that is described as much too tediously true to be interesting.

Mrs. George W. Stoddart, who died at her home in New York city last Sunday, aged seventy-nine, was once a member of the old Boston Theatre stock company, and appeared in support of Edwin Booth, Forrest, Charlotte Cushman, Kean, and other stars of that day.

## Music

*Dr. Henry Coward, the Pioneer Chorus Master.* By J. A. Rodgers. New York: John Lane Co. \$1.

Very timely, so far as this country is concerned, is the appearance of this volume, for Dr. Coward is at present on an American tour with the Sheffield Choir, which, thanks to his training, has done more than any other organization to make English choral singing famous outside of England. His biographer briefly tells the story of his career and then explains by what methods he was enabled to "open a new chapter in the history of chorus singing" and become the leader of the choral revival which England has seen during the past fifteen years. Inasmuch as chorus singing is, on the whole, the least developed branch of music in the United States, the one in which we can learn a good deal from England, it is to be hoped that trainers everywhere will take to heart the lessons taught in this little book. It has only 101 pages, but these contain valuable hints not found elsewhere.

As a youth Dr. Coward was a cutter—one of the best in Sheffield; his work won many prizes, and for the last knives he made he received the high

price of £3 per dozen. But he had higher aims than that; music had always interested him, and as the problem of surmounting the practical difficulties of piano or organ playing did not appeal to him, he decided to become a theorist, teacher, and conductor of choirs. In twenty months he won a scholastic qualification which usually occupied six or seven years. For ten years he held what was virtually a sinecure at £250 a year. Then, fortunately for the cause of choral music, he lost that post and, at the age of forty, began the real work of his life—work the value of which was characterized after a Sheffield festival by Sir Henry J. Wood in these words:

I should like to say what a deep debt of gratitude we conductors and trainers and the whole musical world owe to Dr. Coward for the inspiration of his splendid enthusiasm, hard work, and talent displayed in the management and control of expression and diction as applied to large choral bodies.

An English specialty in choral performances is the marshaling of thousands of singers by one leader. In this branch Dr. Coward is preëminent. In 1897, on the occasion of the visit of Queen Victoria to Sheffield in her Diamond Jubilee year, the singing force under him numbered nearly 60,000 scholars and teachers. Nine bands were distributed at various points, and thus the army of musicians, nearly a quarter of a mile in length, was controlled with surprising precision. Her Majesty was "deeply impressed by the wondrously beautiful effect of so many thousands of sweet young voices."

Probably the main reason why choral music has fallen into neglect in our day is that performances of it have lagged so far behind orchestral concerts in the matter of expression. Dr. Coward also was, at first, a mere time-beater; fortunately, a candid friend informed him that while his choir sang flawlessly, so far as mere execution was concerned, the things that alone make music worth while—expression, color, interpretation, real musicianship—were wanting. He thought the matter over, and started in on his new course with such zeal that at first he perhaps over-shot the mark; at any rate, at a competition the judge censured him and his choir for attempting to sing oratorio music "with expression"—"painting the lily and gilding refined gold." To the present day some critics accuse him of occasional exaggeration, of excessive restlessness; but that he had set a new standard was soon generally admitted. Only one London critic attended his first Sheffield Festival, but he wrote such a glowing account of it that at the second every important newspaper in the country was represented, as well as several foreign journals; and the fame of Sheffield choralism became world-wide.

There are not many books on expression in music, and in none of those in existence would it be possible to find a chapter containing a greater number of useful hints than are to be found in the thirty-four pages Mr. Rodgers devotes to Dr. Coward and the means by which he has achieved such distinction for himself and his singers. He might have had less success had he made his experiments in a country where there is less enthusiasm for this branch of music. The Sheffield Choir contains a number of members from other cities, including some from London. Attendance at the weekly rehearsal costs some of the members \$10 in railway fare and hotel expenses; yet they are eager to come. In our own cities it is almost impossible to get amateur tenors, baritones, and basses to attend rehearsals; but probably they would be more willing to come were Dr. Coward's method followed, by which no composition, however difficult, needs more than three rehearsals. Not a second is wasted. Every bar of the music is numbered, so that, in case of repetition, all can find the place desired at once. The words have to be memorized in advance, at odd moments, and on distinct enunciation great stress is placed by this trainer. He makes the singers read (not sing) the words aloud. Something is wrong, he maintains, if the audience have to refer to their book of words.

The women are not allowed to wear their hats, for all must be able to see this conductor's every beat. Two of his specialties are peculiarities of accenting and shading. In some places he does not allow the singers to accent the whole value of a note, but only the initial attack, which greatly enhances the effect of the accent; the other specialty is a "floating tone," a pianissimo, concerning which the author says that "if a clock cannot be heard ticking through a chord of this tone, sung by three hundred voices, the conductor fines them down until the test is passed." As for the other dynamic extreme, "he never shoots his bolt too soon," but builds up his climaxes in such a way that the apex is held in reserve until the moment when it can be superimposed with overwhelming effect. From the orator Dr. Coward has learned how to enhance the effect of vocal utterance by a hundred little devices of stress, lingering, a fractional silence before a salient word, a change of timbre reflecting the emotional meaning of a word or phrase; and from the actor he has caught the secret of characterization. Not only, when the words are derisive, does he make the choir sing derisively, but, in Berlioz's "Faust," for example, he makes the choristers enter into the real spirit, successively, of the peasants, drunken soldiers, rollicking students, devout villagers, and, finally, the lost souls in Pandemonium, snarling out their un-

holy gibberish. Such are some of the secrets of Dr. Coward's success. It would be well for our own choral conductors if conscience and study of this book made Cowards of them all.

One of the most interesting of next season's concerts will occur in New York on the 18th of December by way of celebrating MacDowell's birthday. It will be given by the Volpe Orchestra, and the soloist will be Augusta Cottlow, who will also play MacDowell's Norse sonata at her recitals.

Lillian Nordica has been again engaged by the directors of the Grand Opera to impersonate Brünnhilde in "Götterdämmerung" at the first complete performance of Wagner's Nibelung trilogy in Paris.

On Good Friday, Sir Charles Santley made what was announced as his last appearance at the Crystal Palace, in London. His first appearance there was fifty-four years ago.

Maurice Ravel, whom some regard as the most promising of the younger French composers, has had the honor of being chosen to compose the first French ballet that the Russian Imperial Corps de Ballet will have ever danced. The old Greek story of Daphnis and Chloe is the subject of it.

## Art

### AN EXAMPLE FROM CHICAGO.

CHICAGO, April 26.

To the visitor from the East who is interested in matters of art two things are especially noticeable in the manner of dealing with such matters here. One is the multifarious functions of a single institution and the concentration of all artistic interests in one place; the other is the friendly and familiar co-operation of artist and layman, of the millionaire and the man of modest or less than modest income, in all efforts for the betterment of artistic conditions.

The Art Institute does the work that, in New York, is done by half a dozen bodies. It is a museum with permanent collections which are rapidly assuming considerable proportions; it is an art school which is the largest in the country, measured by the number of students who attend its classes, and one of the best, judged by the standard of work attained; it is a lecture bureau which provides lectures on artistic subjects for almost every day during the winter; it is a library of books on art and of photographs of works of art; and it is an exhibiting body which holds several important annual exhibitions besides a constant succession of special exhibitions of one sort or another. At the moment of this writing its galleries contain no less than five separate exhibitions, and even a single work of any general interest is likely to be seen there before it goes to its final destina-

tion. It is little wonder that plans are under immediate consideration for extending the building of the Institute out over the railway tracks to the Lake Front, at the same time that the completion of the present building by the erection of a central dome is in contemplation. No one seems to have much doubt that the money for both additions can be obtained.

The various forms of the Institute's activity may have to be separated at some future time, and the combination of a permanent museum with galleries for temporary exhibitions may have to be broken up, but at present it has great advantages. The permanent collections attract visitors to the exhibitions and the exhibitions call attention to the permanent collections. All exhibitions are in the same centrally placed and easily accessible building, and there are always exhibitions to see, so that the attendance is large and, on the three free days of each week, runs up to four or five thousand.

The hearty co-operation of all those in any way interested in art is greatly facilitated by the existence of another institution, the Cliff Dwellers. Perched upon the top of the Orchestra Building, overlooking the lake and almost opposite the Institute, is this artistic and literary club—a luncheon and dining club merely, without bedrooms—where, apparently, almost every one who is any one in Chicago may be met, on any day but Sunday, between twelve and two o'clock. There come the painters, the sculptors, and the architects, the writers and the musicians, and there come also the bankers and the officials of the Institute; there, over the coffee-cups, many a scheme is discussed, and those schemes which survive such discussion are finally launched. If such a club existed in New York it would not be such weary work trying to procure adequate exhibition facilities for the National Academy of Design and the other artistic societies centred in that city. Because such a club exists in Chicago, they have the Friends of American Art.

The idea of such a society had been in the mind of Mr. Hutchinson, the president of the Institute, for more than ten years, the model of the organization being the Société des Amis du Louvre, founded in 1897. About two years ago the idea was taken up by others, and in November, 1909, a letter from Arthur T. Aldis brought about definite action, the society being incorporated in 1910, "to promote the development of American art by the purchase of works by American artists to be presented to the Art Institute of Chicago and by any other appropriate means." The society now contains one hundred and sixty-five members each of whom is pledged to contribute two hundred dollars annually for five years to a fund for the pur-

chase for the Institute of works by American artists, thus providing, when interest is included, an annual income of more than \$32,000 for that purpose. Purchases must be recommended by the purchasing committee and authorized by the executive committee, and the works must, of course, be approved and accepted by the art committee of the Institute. Eight pictures were thus bought from the Institute's annual exhibition, and nine others have since been acquired together with one piece of sculpture which is to be put into marble, Lorado Taft's Solitude of the Soul, the whole at a cost of nearly twenty-nine thousand dollars.

The limitation of the society's purchases to American works was not at first contemplated, and was adopted partly because such a limitation was thought to be of advantage in an appeal to the public; but it seems to me to have been judicious from a larger point of view. The functions of such a museum as that of the Institute are twofold; first, to collect such works of the past and of foreign countries as are exemplary and necessary to our education in art; secondly, to collect such contemporary works of our own artists as shall give future students a fair idea of our production to-day. The two functions must be performed in a somewhat different spirit, and there is no reason why they should not be performed by different people. In the collection of the art of the past a rigid selection is desirable. In the collection of contemporary American art, a more liberal acceptance of what seems good at the time may well be admitted. If errors are made, as they are likely to be, they can be rectified at some future time by eliminations; and a few works which stand the test of time will be worth all the money spent on the whole collection, while works not of the highest rank will still have their historical importance as showing what was done and admired at the time of their acquisition. By assuming this function, the Friends of American Art provide for the carrying on of a work which the Institute found difficult, and they set free the funds and the energies of that institution for its other tasks.

An incidental result of the work of the Friends, and of their policy of selecting a part of their purchases from the annual exhibitions of the Institute, will be the increased attractiveness of these exhibitions to artists, who like to sell and like even better to know that their work is to remain in an important public collection, and the consequent raising of the standard of these exhibitions and the enhancing of their usefulness to students and of their interest for the public.

Not all the works so far purchased by the Friends of American Art are at present hung in the museum. Some of them have been generously lent to ex-

hibitions in other cities, where their authors wished them to be seen before they settled into their permanent place. But there is enough here to make a brave show, and to give a foretaste of what a few years is likely to accomplish. John W. Alexander's *Sunlight*, which we remember in New York as one of his best contributions to recent Academy exhibitions, is among the absentees, and so are Daniel Garber's *Hills of Byram*, and Louis Bett's *Apple Blossoms*, a delightful portrait of a child by a Chicago artist whom we, in the East, should know better than we do. Among the purchases now shown in the galleries of the Institute are Dewing's *Lady in Green and Gray*, a thoroughly characteristic example of his delicate and personal art; Frank W. Benson's admirable *Rainy Day*, an interior somewhat in the vein of Mr. Tarbell and with much of Tarbell's beautiful management of light; and Childe Hassam's *Contre Jour*, one of that artist's figure subjects recently seen in New York in his exhibition at the Montrouge Gallery. Robert Henri's *Young Woman in Black* will be recalled by many as perhaps the very best canvas he has painted, pleasing in tone and in sentiment and without the exaggerations of his more recent style. The most discussed picture is probably Arthur B. Davies's *Maya, Mirror of Illusions*, in which a procession of slender, nude maidens posture before a great mirror which reflects a landscape of lake and mountains as well as their own attenuated forms. It has undeniable charm of color and interest of line, however fantastic and even incongruous its conception may seem to the conservative. Its real artistic motive one takes to be the presentation of each figure in two points of view, with the consequent conflict of identity and difference. The other purchases are Karl Anderson's brilliant *Idlers*; George Elmer Browne's *The Port, Douarnenez, Brittany*; John C. Johansen's *Plazza San Marco*; William Keith's dark and effective *Coming Storm*; Metcalf's *Ice Bound*, one of his best; J. Francis Murphy's *Hill Top*; Gardner Symons's *Winter Sun*; Harry Van der Weyden's *Christmas Eve*; and Lawrence Mazzanovich's little blue and gold canvas called *April Twentieth*.

Of course this is but the beginning of a collection of contemporary American art, but it is a very good beginning. There is not a picture of the seventeen but has real merit, and some have a very high degree of merit. It is a much smaller collection than the Hearn Collection at the Metropolitan Museum, and perhaps it contains no single work of the excellence of some of those in the Hearn gift, but, on the other hand, it attains perhaps a higher average of quality throughout. The Friends of American Art are well aware how much

more remains to do than they have already done, and they are ceaselessly active in the effort to do it. What they have done in one year is in the highest degree encouraging.

Perhaps we do not need such a society in New York, though even there it might find work to do. In many another city this example from Chicago might be followed—will be followed, one hopes—with advantage. And even in New York, though the work which needs doing may be different, we might profit by the spirit in which the work most needed here has been undertaken and is being carried through.

KENYON COX.

"The Painters of Japan," by Arthur Morrison, illustrated in color and collotype, will be published immediately by Messrs. Jack.

After a careful study of all documents bearing upon the subject, Freiherr von Haedel seems certain that the disputed date of Paolo Veronese's birth is 1528.

Monsieur Loys Delteil of 2 Rue des Beaux Arts, Paris, has just issued volume VI of his useful "Le Peintre-Graveur illustré (xixe et xxie siècles)"; it is devoted to sculptors who have etched or lithographed—Rude, Barye, Carpeaux, Rodin. (The previous volumes of this series—which was begun in 1906—dealt with Millet, Rousseau, Dupré, Jongkind; Meryon; Ingres and Delacroix; Zorn; Corot.) The work represents actual and careful research, and is a scientific tool for the use of the collector and the amateur. Each print catalogued is reproduced in halftone, sometimes in two or more states, that being a characteristic and useful feature found notably also in the Rovinski catalogue of Rembrandt's etchings, the one by E. G. Kennedy of Whistler's work (issued by the Grolier Club), and Moreau-Nelaton's monograph on Manet. Furthermore, public and private collections in which early or rare states are to be found are carefully noted, the New York Public Library appearing very often, thanks to the S. P. Avery collection. Vol. VII, devoted to Paul Huet, is to appear in April.

"British Costume During XIX Centuries" (Stokes), by Mrs. Charles H. Ashdown, presents as its distinguishing feature a special classification and dating of women's costume according to headdress. There are some four hundred and fifty illustrations from original sources and nine color plates of costumes reconstructed by the author, ranging from Harold's time to Elizabeth's. The book is popular in plan, but evidently represents considerable first-hand study of the material. The reader should have been warned not to take too literally the testimony of miniatures of Norman date and earlier, which abound in Byzantine conventions. In general, this book will take high rank among popular treatments of the subject.

"How to Visit the Great Picture Galleries" (Dodd, Mead), by Esther Singleton, covers in a single volume the chief museums of Europe, including galleries as far off the beaten track as those of Stockholm and St. Petersburg. The author makes a rigorous selection of important pictures on a fairly catholic basis. Preferring the

primitive, she can admire also the eclectics. Generally, the descriptions or appreciations of pictures chosen for inspection are drawn from well-known critics, French and English. The general arrangement is so sensible and the pocket volume so handy that we regret its defective execution. It shows signs of haste in compilation. Frequently it is difficult without reading forward in the text to associate a picture with its painter. The attributions are always uncritical. Leonardo da Vinci suffers particularly, through imputation of secondary works. The remarkable series of Biblical Rembrandts at Munich is omitted. Goya, in the Prado, is barely mentioned. Surely, manuals of this character should be revised by some one knowing the subject at first hand.

The death is reported from Cornwall, in his fifty-fifth year, of Arthur G. Langdon, an architect, and the author of "Old Cornish Crosses."

Mrs. Elizabeth St. John Matthews, a sculptor, and the wife of Robert Matthews, the artist, died last week of heart disease in the Hahnemann Hospital. Mrs. Matthews had received a commission for a bust of President Taft, and a plaster cast of her design was submitted to a committee recently.

Antoine Lumière, who died recently in Paris, aged seventy-two, began as a sign-painter, but later gained no small reputation as a painter of landscapes.

Eugène Napoléon Varin, who belonged to a family of medallists going back to the reign of Louis XIII, is dead at the age of eighty.

Berthold Riehl, the author of "Die Gemälde von Dürer und Wolgemüt," "Deutsche und italienische Kunsträkture," and other valuable works, died not long since at Munich, at the age of fifty-two.

## Finance

### INFERENCES FROM A QUARTERLY REPORT.

On several occasions in the past decade's industrial history, a quarterly report by the United States Steel Corporation has been of high importance for the light it threw on the general situation. This was true of the June quarter of 1902, which reported net receipts of \$37,000,000 and a \$15,700,000 surplus above charges and dividends, even with the disputed quarterly 1 per cent. paid on the common stock. That showed what even companies with heavily watered stock could do in boom times, and it encouraged Wall Street to talk of a future of unalloyed prosperity. The December quarter of 1903 was an equally accurate weather-sign, when the company's \$15,037,000 net receipts left only three million dollars, after the quarter's fixed charges had been met, for dividends on the \$360,000,000 7 per cent. preferred stock and the \$508,000,000 common. That was an object-lesson in over-confidence, premature dividends, and neglect of working capital—evils which at the time were very general.

The report for the March quarter of 1908, the first full quarter after the panic, was equally instructive. In the face of that formidable blow to credit and prosperity—a much more serious affair than 1903—the Steel Corporation's \$18,200,000 net earnings for the quarter were enough to earn and pay full dividends on the preferred and a dividend at the annual 2 per cent. rate on the common stock; and the reason why the company rode that storm as it had failed to do in 1903 was that a far-seeing policy of husbanding working capital, restraining dividends, and spending freely for improvements, had been consistently pursued, even during years, like 1905 and 1906, when the Corporation's monthly earnings were breaking all records in its history. To a large extent, the pursuance of a similar policy by other companies, which had learned the lesson of 1903, explained the unexpectedly strong condition in which corporate industry in general emerged from the panic of 1907.

But having thus emerged from it, corporation directories promptly proceeded to make a new mistake. Some of the most powerful assumed two things at once—one, that if 1907 could not shake their position, then nothing could; the other, that if dividends could be earned in the face of panic, they ought to be increased immediately when panic depression was over. This, then, is why last week's Steel Corporation statement for the March quarter of 1911 is another instructive bit of testimony. It showed net earnings smaller by 27 per cent. than a year ago, and far short of earnings from the very much smaller plant of 1901 and 1902. They were larger, it is true, than in the slack quarters of 1903 and 1908 already referred to; but as against nothing at all paid out in dividends on the common stock at the close of 1903, and the \$2,500,000 similarly paid for the March quarter of 1908, the company paid out \$6,300,000 in the quarter past.

After omitting all of the usual special appropriation for improvements—for which \$5,000,000 was allotted in the March quarter of 1910—the company had just \$31,155 surplus left from the three months' operations. It would be difficult not to accept this statement as the commentary of events upon the episode of 1909, when the dividend was increased in three successive quarters to the annual rate of 3, of 4, and of 5 per cent. (although quarterly earnings still remained far below 1906 and 1905), when the common stock rose from 41 to 94%, and when serious financiers declared that the rise in the stock, which began in June, 1909, would not stop short of 200.

January's net receipts were the smallest in the company's history save for January of 1908, December, 1907, January and February, 1904, and November

and December, 1903. Had anything like this continued, the 5 per cent. common stock dividend could not possibly have been maintained. These, however, were only the January earnings. The increase from that month's \$5,869,000 to the \$10,468,000 of March was reassuring. But trade has since grown dull again; furnaces were once more blowing out in April; and the question is, what next?

If the steel trade is again to be taken as an index to industrial conditions, we are naturally forced back to the study of other periods like that in which we now live. The story of 1908 and 1909 is familiar. Throughout the first after-panic year, the standpat policy in prices was pursued. The result was such poor business that, even after discontinuing all improvement appropriations (which had been \$57,000,000 annually in 1907 and 1906), barely 4 per cent. was earned on the common stock. With the "open market" of February, 1909, the various grades of steel at once dropped \$4 to \$10 per ton, and the trade predicted prolonged inactivity before business would be on its feet again. But consumers rushed at once into the market; the Steel Corporation's earnings rose from \$23,000,000 in the first quarter to \$29,000,000 in the second, \$38,000,000 in the third, and \$41,000,000 in the fourth, and the management which had looked on a cut in prices as disastrous had within ten months put up the annual dividend rate from 2 to 5 per cent.

The case of 1904 was different. At the end of 1903, when the Steel Corporation was not earning its dividends, steel prices were cut from \$27 to \$23 per ton. Earnings improved from January to April, but very slowly; then they relaxed again, and in September were lower than in April. In the late summer, the price was cut again to \$19.50, and this brought larger orders. By the early months of 1905 steel was selling at the price of 1903; but the corporation's quarterly earnings remained until 1906 below the figure reached just before the "rich men's panic."

Still another story is told by the course of the steel trade during that older year 1897, which, in its earlier months, showed so many resemblances to 1911. This is the narrative, as told in the American Steel and Iron Association's report for 1897:

During the first half of 1897, the prices of iron and steel, which had been very low all through 1896, steadily declined, until, on the 1st of June, 1897, we recorded the fact that prices were then lower than had ever been known. With the increased activity in all branches of productive industry which soon afterwards set in, there was no immediate improvement in iron and steel prices. In the latter part of August and September, however, prices improved and the improvement continued through October.

After that month, recovery was slow and irregular again, and for this the not

uninteresting cause assigned was the country's "possession of a capacity of production, in all lines, far in excess of the home and foreign demand." Yet recovery became really violent in 1898 and 1899; consumption expanded suddenly, producing capacity was ready for it, and prices were on an absolute bargain basis. So that precedent of other periods of reaction and hesitation has three very different stories to tell of recovery from such conditions as now exist. None of the recoveries occurred without further lowering of prices—a fact which may or may not apply to the present day.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, K. A. *Melody in Silver*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 75 cents net.  
 Afalo, F. G. *A Fisherman's Summer in Canada*. Scribner. \$2 net.  
 Anderson, J. H. *Riddles of Prehistoric Times*. Broadway Pub. Co. \$1.50.  
 Baedeker's *Eastern Alps*, Twelfth edition, revised. Scribner. \$3 net.  
 Bagley, W. C. *Craftsmanship in Teaching*. Macmillan. \$1.10 net.  
 Bagley, W. C. *Educational Values*. Macmillan. \$1.10 net.  
 Barton, M. *Impressions of Mexico with Brush and Pen*. Macmillan. \$3 net.  
 Boulier, D. C. *Belgium of the Belgians*. Scribner. \$1.50 net.  
 Brown, I. H. *Standard Elocution*. Revised and enlarged by C. W. Brown. Chicago: Laird & Lee. \$1.  
 Butler, S. *Life and Habit*. Dutton. \$1.50 net.  
 Calvert, A. F. *Valencia and Murcia. A Glance at African Spain*. Lane. \$1.50 net.  
 Claretie, J. *Which Is My Husband?* Translated by Mary J. Safford. Appleton.  
 Cortissoz, R. *John La Farge: A Memoir and a Study*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. \$4 net.  
 Crooker, J. H. *The Church of To-morrow*. Boston: Pilgrim Press. \$1 net.  
 Dalton, C. N. *The Real Captain Kidd*. Duffield. \$1.25 net.  
 Einhorn, David *Einhorn Memorial Volume*. Selected sermons and addresses, edited by K. Kohler. Bloch Pub. Co.  
 Foster, W. T. *Administration of the College Curriculum*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. \$1.50.  
 Garnett, L. M. *Turkey of the Ottomans*. Scribner. \$1.50 net.  
 Garstang, J., Sayce, A. H., and Griffith, F. L. *Meroë, the City of the Ethiopians: An Account of a First Season's Excavations on the Site, 1909-1910*. Frowde.  
 Glaspell, S. *The Visioning*. Stokes. \$1.35 net.  
 Green, T. H. *The Value and Influence of Works of Fiction*. Ann Arbor, Mich.: George Wahr. 65 cents.  
 Gribble, F. *Rachel, Her Stage Life and Her Real Life*. Scribner. \$3.75 net.

#### Financial.

### Letters of Credit

Buy and sell bills of exchange and make cable transfers of money on all foreign points; also make collections, and issue Commercial and Travellers' Credits available in all parts of the world.

International Cheques. Certificates of Deposit.  
**BROWN BROTHERS & CO.**  
 No. 59 Wall Street, New York

Harrison, H. S. *Qued: a Novel*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Horace. *Satires and Epistles*. Edited by E. P. Morris. American Book Co. \$1.25.

Innes, A. D. *A General Sketch of Political History*. Macmillan. \$1.50 net.

Job, H. K. *The Blue Goose Chase*. Baker & Taylor. \$1.25 net.

Larned, J. N. *A Study of Greatness in Men*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. \$1.25 net.

Lawrence, E. G. *The Lawrence Reader and Speaker*. Chicago: McClurg. \$1.50 net.

Lectures on Literature. By the Members of Columbia University. Lemcke & Buechner. \$2 net.

Lieber, F. *Manual of Political Ethics*. 2 vols. Second edition, revised and edited by T. D. Woolsey. Philadelphia: Lipincott.

Lucian's *Human Physiology*. Vol 1, Circulation and Respiration. Translated by F. A. Welby. \$5.25 net.

Luquens, F. B. *Three Lays of Marie de France*. Retold in English verse. Holt. \$1.10 net.

Macdonald, D. B. *Aspects of Islam*. Macmillan. \$1.50 net.

Maplestone, E. E. *The Passion Play at Oberammergau*. Broadway Pub. Co. \$1.

Martyn, F. *A Holiday in Gaol*. Macmillan. \$1.25 net.

Maxwell, H. *The Making of Scotland*. Macmillan. \$1.50 net.

Maxwell, W. B. *Mrs. Thompson: A Novel*. Appleton. \$1.30 net.

Maxwell, W. H., Johnston, E. L., and Barnum, M. D. *Speaking and Writing*. American Book Co. 25 cents.

Merry, J. F. *The Awakened South*. Baton Rouge: Louisiana State Library.

Meyer's Jürg Jenatsch. Edited, with notes, by A. Kenngott. Boston: Heath. 80 cents.

Nolen, J. *Madison: A Model City*. Madison, Wis.: Madison Park and Pleasure Drive Assn. \$1.

Norvang, A. *The Woman and the Fiddler: A Play in Three Acts*. Translated by Mrs. H. Sandy. Philadelphia: Brown Brothers. \$1 net.

Oxford English Dictionary. Vol. viii; Scouring-Sedum. Frowde. \$1.25.

Pabst, A. *Handwork Instruction for Boys*. Translated from the German by B. R. Coffman. Peoria, Ill.: The Manual Arts Press. \$1.

Parkinson, E. K. *The Practical Country Gentleman*. Chicago: McClurg. \$1.25 net.

Pearson, K. *The Grammar of Science. Part I. Physical*. Third edition revised. Macmillan. \$1.60 net.

bill pps, E. M. *Tintoretto*. Scribner. \$4 net.

Portrait Book of Our Kings and Queens, 1066-1911. In Commemoration of the Coronation of Their Majesties King George V and Queen Mary. London: T. C. & E. C. Jack.

Sardou's *La Perle Noire*. With notes and vocabulary by K. McKenzie. William R. Jenkins Co. 25 cents.

Sargent, C. S. *A Guide to the Arnold Arboretum*. Jamaica Plain, Mass.: The Arboretum. 30 cents.

Shelby, A. B. *Auction Bridge*. Duffield. \$1 net.

Shorts, J. *The Vintage*. Duffield. \$1.20 net.

Snyder, H. N. *Selections from the Old Testament*, edited, with notes. Boston: Ginn. 80 cents.

Sterling, G. *The House of Orchids, and Other Poems*. San Francisco: A. M. Robertson. \$1.25 net.

Stevenson's *Inland Voyage and Travels with a Donkey*. Edited by G. S. Blakely. American Book Co. 40 cents.

Terry, C. S. *A Short History of Europe*. Dutton. \$1.25 net.

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